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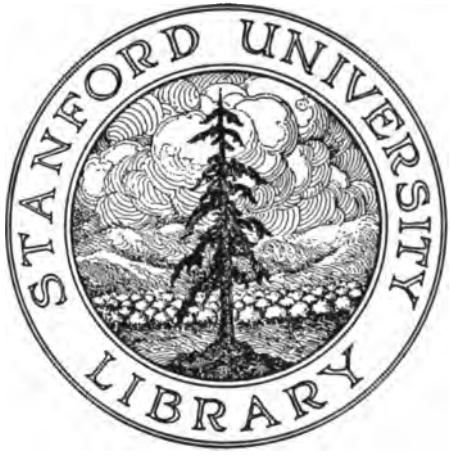

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THE ANNUAL REGISTER,

OR A VIEW OF THE

HISTORY,

POLITICS,

AND

LITERATURE,

For the YEAR 1801.

LONDON:

Printed by T. Burton, No. 31, Little Queen-street, for

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1802.

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PREFACE.

THE year 1801 is fraught with a greater number of important events than any other that has elapſed ſince the commencement of the Annual Regiſter. From the Molucca Iſlands to the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean there was no country or coaſt that was not a ſcene of either military preparation or action, or political negotiation.—Acroſs the Atlantic, the agitations in St. Domingo and Gaudaloupe perplexed France, and alarmed Britain.

The treaties of peace that enſued were many and various: and theſe, with the new forms of government impoſed on ſtates, formerly independent, were certainly not leſs important than the actions at ſea and land, by which they had been preceded.

To the natives and ſubjects of Great Britain and Ireland the hiſtory of 1801 is peculiarly intereſting. The meeting of the Imperial Parliament, and the firſt effects of the union with Ireland in that aſſembly; the war in the Baltic with a kindred and hitherto a friendly nation;

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nation; mutual preparation for invaſion and for defence on the coaſts of France and England; engagements on the French ſhores, ſeen or heard from the Cliffs of Dover.—All theſe objects naturally arouſe the attention of the Engliſh reader, and may be ſuppoſed to occupy, in his imagination, more than their juſt proportion in that of a citizen of the world.

To the extraordinary labours of this year, we have added a deduction of the facts and queſtions that had, for ſome time, agitated and divided the India-Houſe, and has ſeriouſly engaged the attention of the legiſlature.

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THE ANNUAL REGISTER, For the YEAR 1801.

THE HISTORY OF EUROPE.

CHAP. I.

Meeting of the Britiſh Parliament.—His Majeſty's Speech from the Throne reſpecting the high Price of Proviſions—and recent Communications from the French Government.—Addreſſes of Thanks.—Amendments propoſed.—Debates.—Proceedings relative to the Dearth of Proviſions.—Divers Bills.—Royal Proclamation.—Induſtry and Zeal of the Legiſlature in deviſing Means for alleviating the public Diſtreſs.

THE riots which had taken place in many parts of England and Scotland, on account of the high price of proviſions, and which have already been noticed in our laſt volume, were neither ſo violent nor obſtinate as they would have been in countries where there is leſs moderation of character in the people, and leſs confidence in means of conſtitutional relief. The privations and ſufferings of the lower orders, that is, of the great maſs of the people, and indeed of many who ought rather to be claſſed in the middling rank, were ſo great, that every candid mind was leſs offended at the commotions of the populace, than ſtruck with their forbearance and patience. There were, indeed, not a few men in the enjoyment or expectation of places under government, who preſented to the ſuffering multitude a frowning and hoſtile aſpect,

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aſpect, and who ſhewed a diſpoſition rather to maintain the public tranquillity by that mighty armed force which was now on foot, and diſtributed in all parts of the united kingdoms, than by the lenient methods of due ſympathy, conſideration, and aſſiſtance. Among the zealots for ſtrengthening the hands of government, at all adventures, by all forcible means, murmurs were heard, that it was now high time for all men of property to look well to their own intereſts; nor did they heſitate to affirm, that the numerous bodies of volunteers in arms, were fully as neceſſary for the prevention of internal inſurrection, as the repulſion of foreign invaſion. Suſpicions were entertained by thoſe men, of the alacrity of common ſoldiers in this cauſe of coercion. They placed their chief confidence in the volunteers: among whom, indeed, there were not wanting individuals who would have been as ready inſtruments in the hands of the ſevereſt government, for the purpoſe of reſtraining and ſubduing their own countrymen, as for that of repelling external aggreſſion. In ſhort, there were ſome ſymptoms of a tendency to a marked and fatal diviſion between men of property or of hopes, and men of no property and no hopes. And if the vigilance, prudence, and moderation, which was exerciſed, in the prevention or quelling of mobs by the acting magiſtrates, had not formed a counterbalance to the ſpirit of violence that was manifeſted, not by government, but by ſome of the retainers, and what may be termed the expectants of government, an aſpect of affairs might have been ſuddenly preſented, more terrible than any that has menaced this country ſince the full eſtabliſhment of regular law and government. For commotions excited by extreme want, however inconſiſtent with political order, and however fraught with future evils, have nothing in their nature that ſhocks humanity. All queſtions of right, and all preſages of future calamities, might have been loſt in the general tide of ſympathy and compaſſion; which would have given to the popular ſide the force of moral, perhaps even religious, ſentiment.

The ſolicitude that was ſhewn by individuals of all ranks to alleviate the ſufferings of the poor, and the care of government to provide as much, and as ſpeedily as poſſible for their wants, gave conſolation and hope to the people. The hand of private charity was ſtill, as it had been, opened liberally. Aſſociations, in cities and pariſhes, were every where formed, and reſolutions taken for the relief of thoſe who ſtood in moſt need of aſſiſtance. In the month of October, 1800, petitions from the city of London and other places were preſented to his majeſty to convene the parliament, without delay, that meaſures might be taken for relieving the diſtreſs of the people. The king graciouſly intimated that he had already given orders for an early meeting of the legiſlature for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The parliament accordingly aſſembled on the 11th of November. The king, in a ſpeech from the throne, declared that it was a tender concern for the welfare of his ſubjects, and a ſenſe of the difficulties with which the poorer claſſes particularly had to ſtruggle, from the preſent high price of proviſions, that had induced him to call them together at an earlier period than he had

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had intended. He expreſſed an earneſt deſire, that, by their care and wiſdom, all ſuch meaſures might be adopted, as might appear beſt calculated to alleviate this ſevere preſſure, and to prevent the danger of its recurrence, by promoting the permanent extenſion and improvement of agriculture. For preſent relief, he recommended the moſt ample encouragement for the importation of grain from abroad; attention to frugality, and economy in the conſumption of corn; and alſo to the ſtate of the laws reſpecting the commerce in the various articles of proviſion. If it ſhould appear that the evil neceſſarily ariſing from unfavourable ſeaſons, had been increaſed by any undue combinations or fraudulent practices, they would feel an earneſt deſire of effectually preventing ſuch abuſes; at the ſame time, he was ſure, that they would be careful to diſtinguiſh ſuch practices from that regular and long-experienced courſe of trade, which experience had ſhewn to be indiſpenſable, in the preſent ſtate of ſociety, for the ſupply of the markets, and for the ſubſiſtence of his people. He expreſſed his concern at the temporary diſturbances which had taken place in ſome parts of the kingdom, which he aſcribed to the inſtigation of malicious and diſaffected perſons, whoſe conduct was doubly criminal: as ſuch proceedings muſt neceſſarily and immediately tend to increaſe the evil complained of, while they, at the ſame time, endangered the permanent tranquillity of the country, on which the well-being of the induſtrious claſſes of the community muſt always depend. His majeſty, paſſing to the ſubject of the recent communication between him and the French government,* aſſerted his earneſt deſire of peace, and lamented that his wiſhes had been fruſtrated by the determination of the enemy to enter only on a ſeparate negotiation, in which he could not engage conſiſtently with public faith, or with a due regard to the permanent ſecurity of Europe.—Whenever the diſpoſition of the French ſhould afford a proſpect of an honourable peace, he would promote it to the utmoſt of his power; but while ſuch a peace was unattainable, he truſted that his parliament would ſupport him with the ſame firmneſs and loyalty which had been ſignally evinced during the whole progreſs of a very important conteſt.—An addreſs of thanks to his majeſty for this ſpeech was moved, in the HOUSE OF LORDS, by

The duke of Somerſet, who recommended a review of thoſe laws, which either directly or indirectly affected the production and the vending of corn, and, if neceſſary, to repeal, amend, and improve, ſuch parts of them as might be any ways defective. He had heard it ſaid, that the legiſlature ſhould let trade take its courſe, and not endeavour to improve that which always ſucceeds beſt, if left entirely to the management of thoſe individuals who are immediately intereſted in its ſucceſs. There might, perhaps, he obſerved, be ſome foundation for this remark, had the legiſlature always been indifferent, and conſequently impartial to the concerns of agriculture and commerce; but where much has been done, ſome-

* Of which an account has been given in our laſt volume.

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thing more muſt frequently be done, to render what is already done effectual. Where medicine has been adminiſtered, it muſt be frequently continued. The numerous regulations eſtabliſhed in this country with regard to agriculture and commerce, required the frequent attention of the legiſlature, either to enforce thoſe regulations, or to reſcind, amend, and alter them, as a change of circumſtances and different ſtates of ſociety might require. With regard to the riots, the pretence for which had been the extreme ſcarcity, the duke obſerved, that the folly of ſuch proceedings, on ſuch grounds, might excite pity rather than indignation; but yet that it was for the intereſt of ſociety, that, if perſevered in, the authors of them ſhould not eſcape. It might perhaps be neceſſary for their lordſhips in the courſe of the ſeſſion to conſider of ſome means for the conviction, or the more eaſy ſuppreſſion of popular tumults. He was confident that the farming capital of the kingdom might be increaſed, agriculture improved, and proviſions brought cheaper to market, if the property of the farmer were rendered more ſecure, by the more effectual prevention of riot, theft, and conflagration; but of theſe miſchiefs he conſidered theft, though the leaſt conſpicuous, as the moſt prejudicial. The duke, after going over all the topics touched on in the ſpeech from the throne, propoſed, or, in parliamentary phraſeology, moved an addreſs, containing aſſurances, correſponding to the obſervations and ſentiments expreſſed.—The motion for an addreſs to his majeſty was ſeconded by

Lord Hobart. With reſpect to the leading topic of the ſpeech, the high price of proviſions, his lordſhip obſerved, that ſuch was the deficiency of the harveſt in 1779, that, if the alarm of ſcarcity had not been rung in the laſt ſeſſion, and a motion of a right reverend prelate for leſſening the conſumption of private families acceded to, the evil felt at that hour would have been conſiderably aggravated: for, although the agreement propoſed in that motion was not ſigned by all of their lordſhips, the ſpirit of it was followed by many who did not ſign it, and was attended by the very beſt effects throughout the country. To that alarm, to the voluntary economy produced by it, and to the compulſory reduction by the increaſe of price, he aſcribed our eſcape from the ſevereſt diſtreſs: for it was now known, that had not the harveſt of the current year, 1780, been much earlier than uſual, the granaries were ſo completely exhauſted, that, in many parts of England, the condition of the people would have been moſt dreadful. From the extenſion of agriculture, recommended from the throne, much was to be expected; but this was a diſtant remedy. Preſent relief was the object to which their lordſhips attention was more particularly directed; and the moſt immediate relief that occurred was importation, invited by encouragement: but that alſo, he obſerved, was precarious; and, therefore, what he ſhould rely upon, was, economy at home, and the ſubſtitution of other grains to make up the deficiency of wheat. Lord Hobart had ſeen with concern, in the public prints, and particularly in reſolutions of the county of Middleſex, that the high price of corn had been attributed to the war. This he conſidered as an unfounded

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founded and pernicious doctrine. He ſhewed, that, from the experience of the preſent war, no man could be juſtified in maintaining this doctrine: that, if we examined into the periods of former wars and times of peace, we ſhould find the balance of price againſt the latter; and that, in fact, the fluctuation had always depended on the courſe of the ſeaſon. With regard to the latter part of the ſpeech from the throne, he expreſſed his ſatisfaction that a period had now arrived, when a government had been eſtabliſhed in France, with which his majeſty's miniſters could enter into negotiations for peace. Though he had voted againſt treating with Buonaparte, when he made overtures of peace laſt year, it might not be impolitic to negotiate at preſent. As to the probable permanency of his government, he was not competent to ſay much; but he could foreſee none, on the permanency of which, all circumſtances conſidered, we ſhould be ſo well juſtified in founding our ſpeculations. As far as an opinion could be formed from the public prints, it appeared to be quietly ſubmitted to by the people of France; and that country had now arrived at the ſituation, in which all others, after ſimilar convulſions, had been placed. He illuſtrated the truth of this poſition, by a remark of Mr. Hume's on the ſucceſsful uſurpation of Cromwell. "By recent as well as ancient example, it was become evident, that illegal violence, with whatever pretences it might be covered, and whatever objects it may purſue, muſt inevitably end, at laſt, in the arbitrary and deſpotic government of a ſingle perſon." Whether the houſe of Bourbon was ever likely to be reſtored, was a queſtion he would not undertake to diſcuſs. It would be wiſe to treat with the exiſting government, and to conclude a peace, whenever it could be effected, conſiſtently with good faith to our allies, and a due regard to the honour and ſecurity of this country.

Lord Holland contended that the war was one, though not perhaps the principal cauſe of ſcarcity. Notwithſtanding what had been ſtated by lord Hobart, he feared that ſcarcity and war were almoſt neceſſary companions. He concurred in opinion with the duke of Portland, who, in a letter communicated to the public, condemned the clamour which had been excited againſt ſuppoſed monopoliſts, and deprecated all attempts to interfere in the operations of the dealers in grain; but with the general conduct of miniſters he continued to be exceedingly diſguſted. Whether Buonaparte's deſign be peace or war, he ſaid, the conduct of our miniſters gives him uncommon advantages. If his wiſhes be really for peace, he may be entitled to demand from them greater ſecurities as a teſt of their ſincerity; and, if his ſecret deſire be war, while he profeſſes peace, then, by their former conduct, he may obtain his object, and throw all the odium on them. Look back, ſaid he, to the whole hiſtory of the war, and it will be ſeen, that every point which he had to accompliſh, he has been aſſiſted in obtaining by the impolicy of our miniſters. Lord Holland moved an amendment to the addreſs, in which there appears to be greater aſperity than is uſually diſcovered on ſimilar occaſions in the houſe of peers, or, indeed, in that of the commons. "We ſhould receive with peculiar ſatisfaction *any*

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proof of his majeſty's anxiety to reſtore the bleſſings of peace to theſe kingdoms; but we cannot conceal from ourſelves, nor will we, by any ill-timed *flattery*, diſſemble from his majeſty, that a total change of councils appears to us neceſſary for the accompliſhment of that deſirable end, and the re-eſtabliſhment of peace on any ſure or ſolid foundation." This amendment was ſeconded by the earl of Suffolk.

Ld Romney ſaid, that the noble lord (Holland) muſt excuſe him, when he declared that he ſhould have thought much of what had fallen from him would have better become the mouth of Lucian Buonaparte in an addreſs to the French convention, than that of a Britiſh peer to a Britiſh parliament. He had aſſerted that the preſent war, and the conduct of it, formed one continued ſeries of ill-ſucceſs and diſgrace. Was there ever any war, in which Britain had ever been engaged, that was more glorious to the Britiſh name, more honourable to our flag, or that had afforded ſo frequent an opportunity for Britiſh ſeamen and their brave commanders to ſignalize themſelves by brilliant exploits? As to negotiation for peace, he ſaw no reaſon to think that Buonaparte would not as willingly treat with the preſent miniſters as with others. With regard to the high price of proviſions, being a conſiderable farmer himſelf, and living in a corn country, it had occurred to him, as a matter of great doubt, whether thoſe purchaſers of corn, who bought great quantities, did not do more harm than good? He begged leave alſo to ſuggeſt another regulation in the corn buſineſs, which was, that all corn ſhould be brought into the market, and *pitched*, as in former times: by that means every perſon would be able to judge for himſelf, whether there was much corn in the market or not; whereas now, while corn was ſold by ſample, a few growers met in a private room, and nobody knew whether there was much or little at market. In caſe all the corn ſo brought into towns, ſhould not be all of it ſold on the market day, there ſhould be in each town ſmall granaries or warehouſes let at eaſy rents, in which the unſold corn might be depoſited till the next market day.—Theſe hints of lord Romney's undoubtedly were of ſolid utility, and merited the ready and warm approbation which was beſtowed on them by another patriotic nobleman, and friend to the poor. This was

The earl of Suffolk. His lordſhip entirely concurred in opinion with lord Romney, in what he had propoſed for conſideration on the ſubject of the ſcarcity. He alſo concurred with him in opinion, that the greateſt praiſe was due to our naval officers and ſeamen. They had, during the war, behaved moſt glorioufly. But here he muſt ſtop: he could go no farther. On the contrary, he joined with the noble lord who moved the amendment, in thinking that our military operations had been, on the whole, ill conducted. His majeſty's miniſters, he maintained, were highly to blame, for not having inſtituted an inquiry into ſeveral of the military expeditions of the war, which he ſpecified.

Lord Grenville having followed lord Holland over the beaten ground of ſincerity or inſincerity in negotiation, the alleged connexion between war and ſcarcity, which he ſaid had been clearly diſproved;

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the convention of El-Arish, and other particulars, came to the important point of the difference between treating with Buonaparte now and before the battle of Maringo. If Buonaparte were in that house, said his lordship, and would speak truth, he must acknowledge that the battle of Maringo was the fixing of his power. If he had not succeeded on those plains, he had not now been chief consul of France. If he had not succeeded, he must have been involved in total ruin. If the noble lord would minutely contemplate the posture of affairs at that period, he would find that the power of Buonaparte was suspended by a fine thread, and that his proposition for a negotiation arose not so much from a desire of peace, as to confirm him in his precarious power. Since that time, a succession of events had consolidated his power, and he was now *de facto* ruler of France. On former occasions, his majesty's servants had been embarrassed by their duty, which prevented them from stating to the house all they knew respecting France. At the present moment they felt no such difficulty: and he distinctly declared, that, if the French government were sincerely desirous of peace, it might be concluded on fair and honourable terms. With respect to our ally, it would not be right to say that he had acted inconsistently with his alliance, especially as he had given his assurance that he would not; but if, contrary to good faith, other councils should influence his conduct, then there would be no difficulty in negotiating separately, including, however, those allies who remain with us. Though peace be a great object, though commerce be a great object, yet it was of importance that we should shew to the world, that any nation entering into alliance with us, was sure never to be deserted.

The earl of Suffolk asked ministers what steps and proceedings they meant to take to diminish the high price of provisions? He also begged leave to remark, that the number of dragoons was too great, and more than sufficient, as it was not possible to employ them in any other than times of tumult and riot. He recommended the abstaining from brewing, and letting the barley grow solely for the use of the poor. He also reminded the house, of a suggestion which he had offered in a former session, namely, to concentrate all the force in the kingdom, as nearly in the middle of it as possible, and to build vehicles that would hold ten men each, so as to convey 10,000 troops, with little delay, wherever their exertions might be called for. These vehicles, when not otherwise employed, might be sent to fetch fish from the coasts, which would be a considerable relief to the poor and indigent.—On a division of the house, there appeared to be five voices for the amendment; and against it fifty: so that the address was carried by a great majority.—A question was now put to ministers by the duke of Norfolk, of the same purport with the earl of Suffolk's, to which no answer had been given. His grace wished to know on what days the subjects contained in his majesty's speech were to be discussed? Lord Grenville said, he could not exactly tell, because it partly depended on the communications that were to be made to the house on the subject of scarcity, and partly on the business before the other house.—

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The duke of Norfolk then gave notice that he would move for the appointment of a committee to take into conſideration the preſent high price of proviſions.—Lord Grenville ſaid, it was probable that this would be the ſame ſtep that miniſters might propoſe.

In the HOUSE OF COMMONS, an addreſs of thanks to his majeſty was moved by

Sir J. Wrotteſly, who juſtified all the ſentiments expreſſed in the ſpeech from the throne; but inſiſted chiefly on the juſtice and neceſſity of protecting farmers and other individuals dealing in grain from the inſults, abuſes, and outrages, of a miſguided multitude. His majeſty, he obſerved, in directing them to the conſideration of the laws reſpecting the various articles of proviſion, had recommended a moſt important diſtinction between any practices of that nature, and the long-eſtabliſhed courſe of trade, which experience had ſhewn to be indiſpenſable in the preſent ſtate of ſociety.—An addreſs, correſponding to the different topics and ſentiments contained in the ſpeech being then read, it was ſeconded by

Mr. W. Dickenſon, junior. Mr. Dickenſon aſcribed the preſent high price of proviſions chiefly to circumſtances, which neither the eye of caution could foreſee, nor the hand of care prevent. He alluded to two unfruitful years treading hard on the late harveſt. At the commencement of the preſent harveſt, there was not a month's conſumption in the country. He believed, however, that there were other, though ſecondary cauſes of the dearneſs of proviſions, particularly the practices of foreſtallers, regraters, and monopoliſts; and if this deſcription of perſons could be convicted of heaping artificial on the real calamities of the country, there was, in his opinion, no puniſhment which the law could inflict too ſevere. Yet, he candidly admitted, that the legiſlature ſhould be particularly careful not to apply old or antiquated laws to the fair dealer of the preſent day; not to confound the unfair monopoliſt with the merchant, who was neceſſary for the ſupply of the markets. Mr. Dickenſon, among various pertinent remarks, made ſome important obſervations on the evils that had befallen, and muſt befall, free ſtates, on the diſſolution of confederacies neceſſary to their political exiſtence.

Mr. Dickenſon, in concluſion declared, that he ſeconded the addreſs: 1ſt. becauſe it had been moved, in an able ſpeech, by his honourable friend; 2d. becauſe it manifeſted our duty to our ſovereign; 3d. becauſe it aſſerted the independence and peculiar province of that houſe to grant the ſupplies.

Sir Francis Burdett aſked miniſters how they dared to put into his majeſty's mouth that which they themſelves and every man in the kingdom knew to be falſe. Having deſcribed the diſtreſsful ſtate of the country, which had been brought on by the politics of the miniſters, he declared, that, as the addreſs went to approve the conduct of thoſe to whom the public owed all its calamities, he ſhould certainly moſt ſtrenuouſly oppoſe it. For to the war ſolely, and the enormous taxes which it impoſed, ſir Francis aſcribed the public diſtreſs. He conſidered money and bank notes as ſo many tickets, entitling the bearer to ſo many heads of cattle from the graziers, or ſo many quarters

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ters of corn from the cultivators of the earth. Sir Francis calculated, from the variety and weight of taxes, direct and indirect, that a very ſmall fraction of a nine hundredth part of the produce remained to the cultivator as the reward of all the ſweat, labour, and thirſt employed upon his capital. The increaſed price of every thing was to be aſcribed to the increaſe of taxes. Beſet with claimants, all induſtry and produce would ſoon be at a ſtand, if the producer did not find out ſome means to ſtruggle againſt his deſtruction. He cannot deny the authority or validity of the tickets to which he muſt anſwer: but he diſputes their value, that is, he raiſes his price, and thus gives only five perhaps for that ticket which was iſſued for ten. The ticket-bearer is then diſappointed, and either has his ſalary raiſed, or an additional number of tickets for his next ſervice or contract. The ſame proceſs is repeated: the tickets are multiplied, and the price riſes; while the bulk of the nation, who have neither government tickets nor produce, are cruſhed between the two.

Mr. Robſon expreſſed his diſapprobation of the addreſs now moved for by the noble baronet, becauſe it did not hold out to the public the true and deplorable ſtate of the country, and the real cauſe of the dearneſs of corn; and, what was nearly as bad, at leaſt to the middling rank of the people, the dearneſs of every neceſſary of life. In the courſe of the three or four laſt months he had had occaſion to paſs through moſt of the principal counties in England; when he had the pleaſure to ſee plentiful crops, for the moſt part well got in, and at a ſmall expenſe. In the month of Auguſt, and part of September, every body congratulated him, ſaying, Now, ſir, we muſt have bread cheap! The fineſt oats, now about 50*s.* were ſold at Huntingdon, the laſt week in Auguſt, at 24*s.* Mr. Robſon here ſtated three facts, which prove how ticklish a thing it is to agitate the public mind. A ſhort time afterwards (after the laſt week of Auguſt) a report appeared in the public newſpapers by the board of agriculture: in which it was ſtated, that in the crop of the current year there had been a very conſiderable deficiency. Corn immediately began to riſe. The people on this became diſſatisfied. Tumultuous meetings and mobs ſeizing the corn, grew into riots. A proclamation of government, in which a ſcarcity of grain was ſtill more explicitly aſſerted than in the board of agriculture's proclamation, and very juſtly ſhewing the miſchievous folly of riots, inſtead of appeaſing the people, had a contrary effect: for they conſidered it as a meaſure intended not to produce precaution and prudent economy, but merely to encourage and protect farmers, whoſe intereſts were the ſame with thoſe of the landlords and monopolizers.* On the back of that proclamation came a letter, announcing ſcarcity more forcibly ſtill, from the duke of Portland, and very juſtly alſo reprobating and

* It is a remarkable and important truth, that if the conduct of government, or men of rank and power, admit of two interpretations, the people is always ſure to adopt that which is the leaſt generous or juſt on the part of their ſuperiors.

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expoſing the folly and madneſs of outrage.* Theſe three meaſures were the immediate cauſe of the ſudden riſe in the price of corn; nothing was to be heard but a cry of ſcarcity, and that in the moſt plentiful counties. There was no more reaſon for the dearneſs of wheat, oats, and barley, than there was for that of coals, butter, leather,

* In conſequence of riots having broken out in Nottinghamſhire and Oxfordſhire, the duke of Portland, as ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, wrote two official letters: the firſt, dated Whitehall, Sept. 20, 1800, and addreſſed to the town clerk of Nottingham: the ſecond, dated Whitehall, September 29, 1800, and addreſſed to his grace (the duke of Marlborough) the lord-lieutenant of the county of Oxford. It was to the ſecond of theſe that alluſion was made by Mr. Robſon, and other ſpeakers, on the preſent ſubject. In that letter, the ſecretary of ſtate, repreſented to the lord lieutenant, that from the beſt information that could be obtained of the ſtate of this year's crop throughout the kingdom, it appeared that the produce of it, according to the moſt ſanguine eſtimation, was not likely to amount to more than three fourths of an average crop; and that it was thought by many, that it would not exceed three fifths. But, be the amount what it might, it was, he heard, but too well aſcertained, that the whole produce of the grain, in the beſt of years, was not equal to the annual conſumption of the country. He ſolicited the exertion of the lord-lieutenant's great influence and authority to combat and counteract the prejudices which had operated no leſs powerfully than unfortunately in diſpoſing a very large portion of the community to believe, that the late ſcarcity was artificial, and had been owing to the views and ſpeculations of certain intereſted and rapacious men, who took advantage of the difficulties and diſtreſſes of the times, to enrich themſelves at the expence of the public. It was too evident, that it had become indiſpenſably neceſſary, without loſs of time, to counteract and expoſe the folly and injuſtice of aſſuming a right to ſet prices on commodities brought to market, of fixing a maximum for the articles of daily conſumption, of entering into aſſociations (which was much the ſame thing) not to give more than a certain price for any of thoſe articles; of obliging the growers of corn, or dealers in other articles of proviſion, to ſell at a given price, and, what was worſt of all, going in bands, to the houſes of farmers, and forcing them by threats and various other modes of intimidation, to enter into engagements to bring and diſpoſe of their commodities at a given price: a proceeding which he could not advert to, without urging his grace to proſecute, without diſtinction, all perſons concerned in it, in the moſt vigorous, exemplary, and impreſſive manner, which the power military as well as civil under his command, ſhould moſt ſpeedily and effectually enable him to do. If any thing could contribute to realize the abſurd notion of corn being deſtroyed for the purpoſe of keeping up the price of it, that would be more likely to effect it than any other mode that could be adopted, as the life of a perſon poſſeſſed of corn, or any other article of proviſion, is rendered no leſs inſecure than his property; and it would conſtantly tend, as all acts of violence do, to the concealment much more than the production of the commodity; the conſequence of which muſt be obvious, in the injury reſulting to landed property, by diſcouraging tillage and every ſort of agriculture, and by locking up, or diverting into another channel, that capital which is perhaps more beneficially employed in the improvement of land than in any other mode. It would ſo impede and obſtruct the great ſource and means of the daily ſupplies of the country, that famine would ſoon be ſubſtituted in the place of ſcarcity, and that diſtreſs and confuſion would ſoon enſue, which would debilitate its inhabitants, and enervate all its powers, more fatally than any calamity with which it had been viſited for centuries, or than is to be met with in the annals of hiſtory. If the employment of property was not ſecure: if every man did not feel that he had power to retain what he poſſeſſed, as long as he pleaſed, and diſpoſe of it at the time, in the manner and at the price he choſe to fix upon it, there muſt be an end of confidence, of induſtry, and of all valuable and virtuous exertion. The intereſt of the people, as well as the law, required, that the markets ſhould be free and open.

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and hay. But Mr. Robſon was not at a loſs to account for the increaſed price of every thing, nor for the evils under which the people laboured. It was to be aſcribed to the accumulation of taxes, and to the enormous increaſe of fictitious property. The farmer was compelled, to a certain degree, to raiſe the price of every thing that his farm produces. He could not help himſelf. The plain truth was, that the weight of taxes had abſolutely ſubdued the pride, not only of the farmer, but of all the independent part of the country. He repeated to the chancellor of the exchequer, and would repeat it at all times, that in his adminiſtration, the middling part of the people ceaſed to exiſt. Much had been ſaid concerning the poor. He was at a loſs to know what the poor meant. The denomination of the poor now extended half up the ranks of life. Perſons poſſeſſing from 200*l.* to 700*l.* a year, muſt now be claſſed among the poor. Another cauſe which contributed conſiderably to the dearneſs of every thing, was the immenſe quantity of fictitious paper circulated by country banks. Mr. Robſon knew an inſtance of a farmer who owed a large arrear of rent, but who would neither pay it nor take his corn to market. Being preſſed on the ſubject by his landlord, he went to the next town, to one of thoſe banks, of which there were ſeveral in moſt towns, borrowed the money on his note at two months, paid his rent, and withheld his corn from market. To ſuch a height did country banks, of which there were from four to five hundred in the kingdom, extend their fictitious currency, that he had in his poſſeſſion one of their notes, promiſing to pay a guinea in BANK-PAPER.* On the whole, Mr. Robſon was of opinion, that relief to the public, not only in bread, but all the neceſſaries of life, was to be expected from nothing but peace. The permanent taxes, the vaſt increaſe of fictitious property, the determination of miniſters not to make peace, and their inability to manage the affairs of the nation, were the cauſes of our calamities.

Mr. Hardinge ſaid that he had paid every attention to the obſervations both of the honourable baronet

* By one other movement, in the progreſs of artificial money, a note might be given, payable in a note of one or other *country bank*, and ſo on, poſſibly, through other ſtages. Money which was wont to be a phyſical, has now abſolutely become for the moſt part, and indeed, almoſt wholly, a metaphyſical thing: and the Act of Faith, in which it conſiſts, is expreſſed with great propriety on the thinneſt paper, the exility of which ſeems to hold a middle place between the ſpiritual world and the ſolidity of matter. According to certain theoriſts in political economy, the facility of multiplying the ſigns of wealth is of no conſequence, becauſe money will always find its level. True, it will do ſo. But when? The poor labourer does not find it ſo eaſy a matter to raiſe his wages, as government, and other bodies, or great capitaliſts do, to pour down upon him a freſh inundation of paper-money. It is a noted obſervation *corruptio optimi peſſima*. This engine of paper money, a novelty in Europe though not in India and China, it was that eſtabliſhed, in the form of *aſſignats*, the French revolution. The ſame engine, indeed, enabled Britain to reſiſt it: a happy effect if its contagion could not otherwiſe be evaded; but a dangerous facility of going to war in general. This facility of creating money, may, in its farther progreſſion, be puſhed into conſequences that ſhall bring at laſt a thing good, if uſed with moderation, into utter diſcredit.

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and the gentleman who had ſupported him: but that they had miſtaken the object of the motion, which related merely to the propriety of an addreſs to his majeſty, thanking him for his paternal care in calling his parliament together, to conſider the ſtate of the country, and provide the means of relieving the people from the effects of the preſent ſcarcity. Many of their obſervations were of weight, but they would be brought forward with more propriety when the ſubjects to which they referred came regularly under diſcuſſion. The propriety of keeping cloſe to the queſtion in hand, was alſo ſhewn at great, and indeed ſuperfluous length by

Mr. Pitt, who, with equal perſpicuity pointed out the two great and leading topics which the ſpeech from the throne comprehended: the difficulties under which the public now laboured from the ſcarcity and high price of proviſions; and the recent communications that had taken place with the enemy, which brought under review, in regular progreſs, the important queſtion of peace or war. For the relief of the public he propoſed two modes which, he thought, were ſimple, practical, and ſafe. One was, an increaſe of importation: the other, a combination of economy with the uſe of ſubſtitutes for wheaten bread. From theſe methods, a much better effect was to be expected than from any experiments which, on pretence of correcting the evil of monopoly, might ſtrike at the freedom of trade, and circumſcribe the application of induſtry and capital. Their agreeing to theſe preliminary ſteps by no means precluded farther inquiry or more deliberate determination. But, at preſent, no procraſtination, no inquiry could be neceſſary to authorize the expedients propoſed. With regard to the cauſes by which the preſent high price was occaſioned there were many opinions. Some whoſe motives were unqueſtionable, and the humanity of whoſe views was conſpicuous, might have been led, with the pureſt intentions, to give encouragement to the errors, and a ſanction to the clamours which had prevailed on the ſubject. Others, whoſe motives were more doubtful, had endeavoured to combine two diſtinct grounds of prejudice, and to connect the ſcarcity with the war. But the cauſes of the ſcarcity, and the policy and neceſſity of the war, were diſtinct ſubjects of conſideration: and none would blend the diſcuſſion of the latter with that of the former, who wiſhed only to communicate information, and ſuggeſt remedies. But, ſince the queſtion had been ſtarted, he begged leave to ſuggeſt a few general obſervations, which ſeemed completely to overthrow the argument of thoſe, *if there were any*, who ſeriouſly imputed the dearneſs of proviſions to the war. Here Mr. Pitt, from a compariſon of the prices of grain, at different periods of the preſent war (though the argument would be ſtrengthened by a review of former wars), endeavoured to ſhew that war, of itſelf, had no evident or neceſſary connexion with the dearneſs of proviſions, and that there could be no reaſon for combining the ſcarcity with the diſtinct inquiry reſpecting the policy of the war. The reaſoning of Mr. Pitt, on this ſubject, was the ſame with that of lord Hobart, in the houſe of peers, already ſtated. As to the extent of the deficiency of the late harveſt,

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harveſt, Mr. Pitt thought that it would be no leſs raſh then unneceſſary to give any opinion. For the practical purpoſes propoſed, a knowledge of the preciſe deficit was not neceſſary. Laſt year the crops failed almoſt generally, in all the articles of proviſion. This year wheat was ſhort: but ſeveral other kinds of grain, particularly barley, plentiful, both at home and abroad. By a due application of the reſources of economy and other ſubſtitutes, joined to importation, he was ſatisfied that the ſupplies of the year would be made ſo anſwer the conſumption. He truſted, therefore, that one of their firſt meaſures would be to go into a committee of the whole houſe, to fix the quantum of bounty to be allowed on importation; that a ſelect committee ſhould be appointed to inveſtigate the ſubject of the ſcarcity, to which committee ſhould be referred the part of the king's ſpeech which referred to that point; and that the committee ſhould, from time to time, propoſe ſuch meaſures as, from the reſult of their inquiries, ſhould ſeem fit to be adopted.

On the queſtion of peace or war, Mr. Pitt only obſerved, that, as the papers on which the merits of the caſe muſt be decided, were not yet before the houſe, it would be premature.

Mr. Sheridan did not object to the addreſs; nor yet would his honourable friend, the honourable baronet near him (ſir F. Burdett), had he given cloſe attention to it: for it contained nothing reſpecting the ſincerity of miniſters in their efforts to reſtore peace, but merely an approbation of that ſentiment of the ſpeech which expreſſed his majeſty's determination to uſe all means that might be in his power to reſtore ſuch a peace to the country, as would be conſiſtent with its peace and ſecurity. The ſuggeſtion reſpecting importation ſeemed to be well timed and politic. And the language of the ſpeech and of the miniſter this night, reſpecting an examination of the laws againſt foreſtallers and regrators, was wiſe and manly. But from the miniſter he differed widely in his opinion, that the high price of proviſions was neither cauſed by the war nor the taxes. He allowed that, at a moment like the preſent, it was incumbent on the houſe ſimply to look at the queſtion of the high price of proviſions, and to inquire how the evils which the country ſuffered could be moſt effectually cured. Yet they ought not to ſkim over matters: it was indeed the duty of the houſe to find the people bread; but it was alſo their duty to find them the truth. If war was not alone the cauſe of the preſent high price of proviſions, it was certainly an aggravation of the ſufferings of the people. The war then ought to be diſcontinued. Would it be denied, that while there were 300,000 men employed in the navy and army, there was not, of neceſſity, a conſiderable waſte of proviſions? Every man employed in ſuch ſervice, cauſed, perhaps, a conſumption of five times as much proviſions as was uſed by the ſame number of individuals in time of peace. But, ſuppoſing it to be only four, or three times greater, and that they added the probable waſte in the navy, the tranſport ſervice, the victualling office, in barracks for the cavalry, regulars, and volunteers, and in general throughout the domeſtic departments of our warlike ſyſtem, there

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was no man, any thing in the ſhape of a miniſter, who would deny that war was a cauſe of ſcarcity and dearneſs. "God forbid," ſaid Mr. Sheridan, "that the war ſhould not be the cauſe! for, if it be not, the ſituation of the country is deplorable indeed. But, believing that the war is the great cauſe of our ſufferings, I hope that the houſe, finding it to be ſo, will ſeriouſly be inclined to ſeek relief in peace.

The great argument made uſe of to ſhew that there was no neceſſary connexion between war and the ſcarcity and dearneſs of proviſions was combated, and it would appear with not a little ſucceſs, by

Mr. Nichols. It appeared, he ſaid, that, in 1793 and 1794, the agents of government had introduced too little corn from abroad: from whence aroſe a ſcarcity in the ſpring of the year 1795. The ſcarcity that took place in May, in that year, was not the conſequence of a bad harveſt in the preceding year, but of an inſufficient introduction of corn in the years 1793 and 1794. The agents redoubled their activity in the ſubſequent part of 1795. But the introduction was ſtill unequal to the demand. And the conſequence was, that the miniſter ſignified to the corn-dealers, that he would abandon the trade, if they would reſume it. The dealers did reſume it, and they imported, in the year 1796, a greater quantity than the moſt ſanguine imagination expected; the importation amounted to 1,086,000 quarters. What was then the conduct of the miniſter? The corn-dealers ſay, he broke his faith with them: for with 70,000, which his own agents had bought, and 80,000 more, which he had on hand, he ſunk the price of corn 2*l.* 16*s.* a quarter. This gave birth to the ſecond famine. This ſecond famine, which took place in 1799, was early enough foreſeen. Why was not corn ſent for? The dealers would not truſt the miniſter. They did not ſend, while the Baltic was open. If they had, the famine would not have broken out ſo early. But the miniſter had ſaid that, in 1797 and 1798, corn was cheap. True, but we had, in 1796, an importation of 1,086,000 quarters.

With reſpect to the frugality recommended in the conſumption of corn, Mr. Nichols obſerved, that we had to pay from 3 to 400,000 ſoldiers and ſailors, who certainly conſumed more than they did in thoſe employments from which they had been taken by the war. The men under ſir Ralph Abercromby were fed with animal food, and with wheaten bread. In the cottages which they inhabited before the war, their uſual fare was, perhaps, neither animal food nor wheaten bread. If they were Iriſhmen, their food conſiſted of potatoes and butter-milk. If Scotchmen, they had lived, probably, on oatmeal, barley bread, and herrings. If, therefore, they meant to adopt a real ſyſtem of frugality, they muſt reduce the number of their ſoldiers and ſailors.

Mr. Grey agreed with his honourable friend, ſir Francis Burdett, that there was no effectual remedy but a peace. Mr. Pitt had concluded that war could have no peculiar effect to enhance the price of proviſions, becauſe wheat was cheap in 1797. But it appeared, he ſaid, from the moſt authentic documents, that all kind of corn was dearer during the courſe of the ſeven years of war, than during the ſeven years that preceded it; and that, excluſively of

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the years of particular ſcarcity, which we had lately experienced, wheat had been eight ſhillings per quarter higher during the five cheapeſt years of the preſent war, than it was between 1788 and 1793. War muſt neceſſarily tend, in various ways, to produce ſymptoms of ſcarcity. Thouſands were taken from laborious and productive occupations to run idle, and conſume what was produced by the labour of others. If each of them did not exactly eat five times as much as he did before, yet certainly the effect which his change of life produced, in bringing on a ſcarcity, was as great as if he did: for, inſtead of living on vegetable diet, he muſt now be fed with beef and mutton; and it was well known that it required five times as much land to maintain one who lives on animal food, as another who taſtes nothing but vegetables. Steadily adhering to the principles of Dr. Adam Smith, he maintained that, in general, all apprehenſion from unfair dealing was chimerical. In time of peace, he ſaid, the demand is conſtant and regular; and ſpeculation never will be extended beyond the wants of the community; but, in time of war, fleets are to be victualled, armies ſuddenly called together are to be fed, and expeditions are frequently fitted out: thus a ſpirit of adventure is generated, and enterpriſing men may take advantage of the facility of raiſing money to ſpeculate to an unexceptionable degree. After a philippic on miniſtry, through whoſe miſconduct, he aſſerted, the war had been unſucceſsful, and every enterpriſe failed, while the country, through their continued attempts, groaned under a heavy load of miſery, he concluded with moving, as an amendment, "That the laſt ſentence in the addreſs ſhould be left out." That ſentence was as follows: "Concurring with your majeſty in the anxiety which your majeſty entertains for the ſpeedy reſtoration of peace, we ſhall ſee, with the utmoſt ſatisfaction, the adoption of all ſuch meaſures as may beſt tend to promote and accelerate that deſirable end, conſiſtently with the honour of this country, and the true intereſts of your people; but if the diſpoſition of our enemies ſhould continue to render it unattainable, without the ſacrifice of theſe eſſential conſiderations, we ſhall feel it our indiſpenſable duty to perſevere in affording your majeſty the moſt zealous and effectual ſupport, and to omit no exertion on our part, which can enable your majeſty, under the bleſſing of Providence, to conduct this important conteſt to a proſperous concluſion, and to maintain, unimpaired, the ſecurity and honour of theſe kingdoms." Mr. Grey, in the courſe of his ſpeech, had "called particularly on that right honourable gentleman, who had the more immediate direction of military affairs, to inform them, in what manner he had uſed the truſt confided in him? He had the uncontrolled command of a mighty army, and he profeſſed his ſenſe of the neceſſity for executing ſome great enterprize; yet, in no one inſtance, had he gained an object which could, in any degree, contribute to the ſucceſs of the war." In reference to this,

Mr. ſecretary Dundas ſaid, that he had come down to the houſe with the perſuaſion that he ſhould not have any occaſion to ſpeak. He found it, however, impoſſible to reſiſt the peremptory call upon him by

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by the honourable gentleman, who had thought proper to challenge him to riſe, at a time when he not only had not intended to mention, but expected that no other perſon in that houſe would have mentioned any other matter than that which was mentioned in the ſpeech from the throne. Mr. Dundas then ſet about ſhewing, by an enumeration of various circumſtances, that the war was ſucceſsful, that we had made many and great conqueſts, fully co-operated with our allies, and prevented an addition to the naval force of our enemies.

Mr. T. Jones, among various obſervations, characterized by an air of naiveté or ſimplicity, made one, which appeared to make a very general impreſſion on the houſe. After wiſhing, in the moſt ſolemn manner, that his majeſty's miniſters had as ſincere a regard to the welfare of the people, as our good and gracious, humane, benevolent, and religious ſovereign, he ſaid, "The fact is, his majeſty's miniſters now ride on the popularity of the king; and, I fear, they will riſk that popularity." He owned, that it had been his practice, however diſagreeing with them, to look up with reſpect to the political talents of the chancellor of the exchequer, the right honourable ſecretary, and others of his majeſty's miniſters; "but they are not," ſaid Mr. Jones, "the men that we imagined them to be: I begin to think they are not above the common level of men; I think many of the gentlemen I occaſionally act with equally fit for the truſt they enjoy; and I do not think I overrate myſelf in ſaying, that, for my country's cauſe, I would enter into office, on a conviction that I might do as well; I could not well do worſe, God knows." On the whole, as to the former part of the addreſs concerning the poor, and his majeſty's paternal regard for their welfare and comfort, Mr. Jones voted for it ſincerely. As to the latter, breathing war, he totally deprecated it.

The amendment being negatived without a diviſion, the original addreſs, with very few diſſenting voices, was carried. No time was loſt by the legiſlature in its endeavours to provide remedies for the public diſtreſs. The commons, on the following day, voted bounties on the importation of various kinds of grain. Three ſeveral bills were brought forward: the firſt, to prohibit the uſe of grain in the diſtillation of ſpirits, and the manufacture of ſtarch; the ſecond, to prohibit the exportation of rice; and the third, to enable his majeſty to prohibit, for a limited time, the exportation of proviſions. A ſelect committee was appointed to inquire into the cauſes of the high price and beſt remedies for the ſcarcity of proviſions: the reports of which might, from time to time, ſuggeſt hints for ſalutary laws, or uſeful regulations. A ſelect committee, for taking into conſideration and making their reports, on ſo much of his majeſty's ſpeech as related to the dearth of proviſions, was alſo appointed by the houſe of lords. Beſides the three bills juſt mentioned, a bill was introduced into the houſe of commons, granting a bounty on the importation of all ſorts of grain; a bill for permitting herrings or other fiſh, the produce of the fiſhery carried on in Nova Scotia, New Brunſwick, Newfoundland, and on the coaſt of Labrador, to be imported in any Britiſh ſhip, without payment of duty, for

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for a time to be limited: a bill for making a better provision for the subsistence of the poor, and for enabling the overseers to employ a certain portion of substitutes in the distribution of parochial relief: a bill for permitting the importation of Swedish herrings duty free. The motive assigned for the introduction of this bill, was, the scanty supply and high price of the produce of the Scotch fisheries in the present year, in the article of herrings. In former years, when this species of fish was cheap, and not unfrequently so low as 4*s.* 6*d.* per barrel, upwards of 150,000 barrels were annually exported to the colonies in the West Indies: but now, when the fish was not so plentiful, the necessities of the country requiring the whole produce of the home fishery as supplementary provision for the poor; and the price so high as 15*s.* per barrel, the country could not afford the necessary supply of this article, at an eligible price, to our West India colonies. It therefore became necessary to permit the importation of Swedish herrings, duty free, for that purpose. This could not at all operate to the discouragement of our home fisheries in this article, as the price of their produce was now so extremely high, as to hold out the most ample encouragement for the most extensive exertions of those employed in the fishery. A bill was also introduced, allowing the use of salt, duty free, for the purpose of preserving herrings and other fish, in bulk, for a time limited, extending the allowance on pilchards cured and exported, to all pilchards now cured, whether exported or sold for home consumption; and for the protection, for a time limited, of persons engaged in the herring fishery, or in going to, or returning from, the fishery, from being impressed into his majesty's service: a bill for granting to his majesty the sum of 50,000*l.* for the purchase of stores of herrings, and distributing them for the use of the different parts of the kingdom: a bill, prohibiting the manufacture of flour or meal from wheat, or any other grain, finer than a specified standard, commonly called the brown-bread bill: and another bill, for continuing an act made in the last session of parliament, entituled, "An act to prohibit, until the expiration of six weeks, after the commencement of the next session of parliament, any person or persons from selling any bread which should not have been baked a certain time, namely, four-and-twenty hours."

All these bills having passed through the usual stages in both houses, were, in the course of December, by the royal sanction, passed into laws. A resolution was also agreed to by the house of commons, "That, for the purpose of affording temporary relief to such parishes within the bills of mortality, and the parishes adjacent thereto, as were unable to support their own poor, it was necessary that a local fund should be raised by a general tax or rate on such parishes, under certain regulations and exceptions, as might be thought expedient; and an humble address was presented to the king, desiring that his majesty would be graciously pleased to advance, out of the civil list, such sum as his majesty might think necessary for the immediate relief of the poor in the parishes of St. Matthew, Bethnal-green; Mile-end New-town; and Christ-church, Spi-

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tal-fields: with assurance to his majesty that the commons would make good the same."

The distress to which the poor of the three parishes just mentioned, who were obliged to make application for parochial relief, were reduced, through the inadequacy of the funds provided for them, was very great. By the statements given in, by the parish officers, to the committee appointed to consider of the high price of provisions, it appeared that they were not able to grant pecuniary aid to so much as one-tenth part of those persons, who would be likely now to receive it, if they resided in their own parishes; and also that, to the few whom they relieved, on account of their being entirely out of work, they gave only about one-fifth or one-sixth part of the sum commonly granted in London to persons in like circumstances. It was also stated, that the workhouses were, at that time, exceedingly crowded. In Mile-end New-town, out of 860 houses which were assessed to the poor rates, no less than 529 were supposed to pay a yearly rent of only 11*l.* and under; and, among these houses, many which paid a rent of less than 3*l.* per annum. The proportion of small houses, or of houses divided into small lodgings, in the two other parishes, was also very great. The rental of all these parishes charged to the poor rates, was about 60,000*l.* The rental of the metropolis, including the parishes of St. Pancras and Mary-le-bonne, was estimated at about fifty times that sum, or about three millions. The number of persons in the three parishes, who were of the poorer class, and were not now relieved, were computed at between 16 and 17,000, forming, unquestionably, a large portion of the poorer labourers and manufacturers of various kinds, who wrought both for the city, and for other parts of the country.

The legislature, in providing a remedy for this evil, were not under the necessity of having recourse to any new law. By a clause in a law of the 43d year of the reign of queen Elizabeth, entituled, "An act for the relief of the poor," it was enacted, that, if the justices, charged with the execution of that act, should perceive that the inhabitants of any parish were not able to levy among themselves sufficient sums for the purposes of the act, "then two justices might tax, vote, and assess, any other of other parishes, or out of any parish within the hundred where the said parish was situated, to pay such sum and sums of money to the churchwardens and overseers of the poor parish, as the said justices should think fit." This clause, which had, in several instances, been acted on, afforded a clear proof, that it was not the intention of the laws, that parishes burdened in a particular manner with poor, should be so far insolated from all others, as never to call on them for relief; and that even whole counties are considered as liable, if necessary, to be charged with contributions, in order to ease contiguous parishes.

Thus the paternal care of the legislature was seen to extend to all classes of men in all situations; and thus the people of England were emphatically taught to consider the welfare of their neighbours as their own. The sum that might be wanted for the relief of the three poor and populous parishes above mentioned,

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toned, until the ſeaſon of next harveſt, was eſtimated at 20 or 30,000*l.* At the ſame time that the parliament laboured with great diligence, by all means, to provide, or point out means by which the deficiency in the crops of the preſent, and the laſt year too, might be ſupplied, they judged it to be very expedient that all claſſes ſhould be called on by the authority of him, whoſe benignant character and exemplary conduct well entitled him to be conſidered and called the father of his people, to obſerve the greateſt œconomy in the uſe of all kinds of grain. A proclamation for this end was iſſued by his majeſty, on the 3d of December, 1800, in conſequence of a joint addreſs from both houſes of parliament.

In the courſe of the parliamentary inquiries into the cauſes and beſt means for the remedy of the ſcarcity, or the dearth of proviſions, the idea that firſt occurs to the people of all countries, of reſtraining the very high exactions of the venders of grain, by compulſion, was adopted by a ſenator certainly not deficient in intelligence, any more than in an active zeal for the proſperity of his country, and the well being of his countrymen: though, on the preſent occaſion, our praiſe muſt be limited to the purity of his benevolent intentions. It was to be expected, that in times of great diſtreſs, ſentiments of tender ſympathy would be eminently diſplayed among that order of men, whoſe hereditary rank and poſſeſſions, by a thouſand recollections and anticipations, connected them more cloſely with the whole family of Engliſhmen, than thoſe whoſe wealth is new, and acquired by means of a general commerce with all nations, and, in too many inſtances, at the expence of the great body of the people. There was, accordingly, in the concern that was ſhewn for the ſufferings of the poor, in this calamitous year, by the nobility and old gentry, ſomething peculiarly anxious and parental; and which was diſplayed both in their public appearances and private ſacrifices. The very ſound of a *maximum* is naturally and juſtly an object of ſuſpicion and alarm. Yet, in propoſing a kind of modified maximum, the earl of Warwick clearly preferred the relief of the people to his own private intereſt. In the houſe of lords, November 14, on the ſubject of the ſtate of the laſt crop,

The earl of Warwick ſaid, that from the ſtricteſt obſervation, he could poſitively declare, that on his own lands, not only thoſe which he occupied, but throughout the whole of his neighbourhood, the late harveſt was remarkably abundant. He could alſo aſſure the houſe, that the farmers were making two hundred per cent. profit! He was aware of the right which every man had in the diſpoſal of his property, as well as the protection in that property to which he was entitled from parliament. Yet it would be admitted by all their lordſhips, that men employed as labourers, and particularly labourers in agriculture, had a right to receive as much wages as would maintain themſelves and families: but ſo far from this being the caſe in his neighbourhood, he had known labourers to receive eight or nine ſhillings a week from farmers: a ſum ſo inſufficient for their ſupport, that their families were actually ſtarving. And yet theſe farmers were gaining twice more than they were, by their own acknowledgment, entitled to.

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Thoſe who demanded and received upwards of twenty ſhillings a buſhel for their corn, candidly owned that they would be contented with ten, provided that other farmers would bring down their prices to that ſtandard. What then was to be done? If he might venture to give his opinion on ſo delicate a ſubject, he would certainly propoſe an exception to the general rule of protecting men in the abſolute diſpoſal of their property. In ſhort, he would recommend the adoption of a *maximum*, by which no wheat ſhould be ſold at a higher price than ten ſhillings per buſhel. Although, under any other circumſtances, he ſhould be hoſtile to a meaſure of this kind, yet, ſituated as the country was at preſent, he conceived it abſolutely neceſſary.

Lord Grenville agreed with the earl of Warwick, that the price of labour was by no means ſufficient for the ſupport of the labourer and his family; and alſo that men ought to receive ſo much wages as ſhould ſupply them with all the neceſſaries of life. But how the diſtreſſes of thoſe people were to be relieved, was a queſtion of great difficulty. With reſpect to what the noble earl had ſaid concerning the abundance of the harveſt in the particular diſtrict where he reſided, no general concluſion, either as to abundance or ſcarcity, could be drawn from that aſſertion. As to the maximum propoſed, he ſhould never hear that word mentioned in the ſenſe in which it had been uſed that day, without expreſſing the diſapprobation he muſt feel at hearing that meaſure recommended, which of all others would have the moſt injurious and dangerous tendency, and which was moſt of all likely to defeat its own object. In every country where it had ever been adopted, it was found productive of the moſt dreadful miſchief and danger.

The houſe having again entered on the ſubject of the ſcarcity of corn, on the 17th of November, the earl of Warwick having apologized for the uſe he had inadvertently made on a former occaſion, of the word maximum, took the liberty of ſaying a few words in juſtification, not of the unfortunate word that he had dropped, but of the principle on which he had grounded his argument. He ſtill contended that the gains of the farmers were enormous. He ſpoke from what he knew. The crops in his country, and for a diſtrict of 400 miles that he had travelled, were apparently moſt plentiful. He had ſent his ſteward among the farmers, his own tenants, to remonſtrate with them, and inquire why corn could not be ſold at a cheaper rate. He brought him no very ſatisfactory anſwer. His lordſhip then took his horſe, and, in order to make the neceſſary inquiry, rode among them himſelf: when the farmers admitted, that wheat might be ſold at a much lower price, and yet afford them a competent profit; and that they would willingly ſubſcribe their names to an aſſociation to ſell their corn at a reduced price, if other farmers would do the ſame. He, as a farmer, believed that there was corn enough in the country to meet its wants, if any means were taken to compel the corn growers to bring it to market, and diſpoſe of it at a reaſonable profit: but as to corn-factors and great growers of corn, who would moſt likely be the witneſſes called before the committee, they were intereſted in miſleading them, and therefore their teſtimony ought not to be implicitly relied on.

The idea of reſorting at all to the

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the principle of a maximum, on such an occasion as the present, was reprobated by the lord chancellor in the strongest terms. It was dangerous, he said, in the extreme, to hold forth such doctrines, or to inculcate that even the smallest proportion of relief was to be expected from their application.

This subject of the dearth of provisions, and the mode of relief by a compulsory reduction in the price of wheat, was resumed by the earl of Warwick, in the house of lords, on the 5th of December. That by the laws of England, all property was secure, as had been justly set forth by the lord chancellor, when the present question was under their lordships consideration, he admitted: and also that the security of property was a maxim not to be lost sight of in any government. But he observed, at the same time, that the laws of England did not protect property acquired by fraudulent and nefarious means. They did not protect the acquisitions of highwaymen. And he defied any one to shew, on the statute books, the recognition of any such profession as that of corn-factor. On the contrary, the law spoke of persons employed in agriculture, as labourers or farmers: but the name of corn-factor was not to be met with. He did not deny the utility of middle-men to transport grain from one part of the kingdom to the other, in such proportion as it might be wanted: but he was of opinion, that they should be licenced, and be obliged to deal only on commission, and not permitted to trade on their own account. He appealed to the reverend bench, whether there was any passage in holy writ, which, any more than the law of the land, recognised or sanctioned the business of a corn-factor! On the contrary, Providence had given the productions of the earth for the use of its inhabitants: the grower and consumer had a joint property in the produce of the field; and it was never intended that ten or twenty men sitting together, should be enabled to buy up the greatest part of the grain necessary for the subsistence of the people, and regulate the price of provisions as suited their own interest. With regard to the particular maximum he had proposed, it was very different from that French *maximum* which some of their lordships had so justly reprobated. The French maximum went to all kinds of articles for the sustenance of man, which were to be paid for in a paper of no value, and therefore struck at the very root of property. His suggestion, on the contrary, tended to secure to the farmer a fair and liberal profit, at the same time that it would secure the public from those impositions, which, in his conscience, he believed to be the source of all the present distresses of the country. As a proof that the scarcity was artificial, lord Warwick mentioned a splendid instance of disinterestedness and generosity in a tenant of his, whose name shall go down with his noble landlord's, as far as the Annual Register may penetrate into the recesses of future times. Mr. John Radford, of Warwick, during the whole of the scarcity, sold his corn at half the market price. Lord Warwick had also conversed with several other farmers, who all declared that the prices were exorbitant, but that they had a right to the same prices as their neighbours. In proof that

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the ſcarcity was artificial, lord Warwick adverted to another circumſtance. Within theſe few months, there had been no leſs than 400 convictions throughout the country for foreſtalling, regrating, and monopolizing. What was the effect of this? A man of the name of Ruſby was convicted. The price of oats, from fifty ſhillings per quarter, fell from day to day, till it came down ſo low as ſeventeen ſhillings and ſixpence. It had ſince riſen no doubt, as the impreſſion made by that verdict had gradually worn off.

On the general ſubject of dearth and diſtreſs, lord Warwick obſerved, that it was the duty of every good government to find employment, if poſſible, for thoſe who were willing to labour. There were numerous waſte and uncultivated lands in the country, which the legiſlature, in its wiſdom and diſcretion, might portion out to the poor, who he was ſure would be willing and deſirous to cultivate them. The encloſure and cultivation of the waſte lands was alſo warmly recommended by the earl of Moira, and other ſpeakers in both houſes. The earl of Warwick ſaid, that neither he, nor any of their lordſhips, could have any other inducement than the public good, and the wiſh to alleviate the ſufferings under which the people now laboured. Theſe alone were the motives which induced him to move the following reſolution: "That from the 10th of this inſtant, December, to the 10th of June, 1801, the magiſtrates of every county in the kingdom ſhall be authorized, upon ſuch evidence as may be given before them, to affix a certain determinate price, not only on corn, but on agricultural labour."

Lord Grenville moſt readily aſſented to the truth of what had been declared by lord Warwick, reſpecting the motives that had induced him to move the reſolution: but he reminded him that the ſubject of it had already been twice diſcuſſed in that houſe, and almoſt unanimouſly condemned. Lord Grenville proceeded to condemn it a third time, on the old ground of protection of property, and the dangers to be apprehended from any violation of that principle.—The motion was then put, and negatived. *

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* As this is not a queſtion of party or politics, but of great and univerſal importance, and even anxious concern, the few obſervations we take an opportunity to make on this intereſting ſubject will not be imputed as an indication of any improper bias in our narrative. Though the idea of fixing a maximum for corn was juſtly diſapproved, as tending to aggravate, in the long run, inſtead of alleviating the public diſtreſs, yet, if there really was no ſcarcity, a matter which appears to us to be doubtful, there was ſomething monſtrous in idle capitaliſts, whether in the character of gentlemen farmers, corn-factors, contractors for government, or other denominations, *muzzling the ox that treads* out the corn, and rolling in luxury, while the actual cultivator of the ſoil, with his family, wanted bread. The laws that ſupport ſuch a ſtate of ſociety are not to be violated, but they may be gradually modified and changed. Though the ſuggeſtion of a reſtriction on the price of grain be rejected, might not the idea of licenſing corn-brokers, and reſtraining them from dealing on their account, be adopted and improved?

In all civilized nations, in proportion as they are induſtrious and commercial, there is a progreſſive diſjunction and divorce between accumulated capital, and perſonal labour. Every one who has got money becomes unwilling to work, and ſpeculates on the labour of others. There is a multiplication of maſter farmers, maſter carpenters, maſter tailors, maſter

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In the reports of both houſes of parliament, there are many uſeful hints of means both for enlarging the reſources, and economizing ſubſiſtence. In both houſes there appeared a ſincere and anxious co-operation, both for the relief of the preſent preſſure, and preventing the recurrence of a ſimilar calamity in future. A meaſure, intimately connected with the prevention of ſuch recurrence, was introduced into parliament by Mr. Abbot, on the 19th of November, 1800. This was a bill for aſcertaining the population of Great Britain. To Mr. Abbot it had long been a matter of ſurpriſe and aſtoniſhment, that a great, powerful, and enlightened nation, like this, ſhould have remained hitherto unacquainted with the ſtate of its population: the knowledge of which muſt be ſerviceable for ſo many important purpoſes of wiſe legiſlation and good government, and without

maſter ſhoemakers, maſter chimney-ſweepers, and maſter artificers of all ſorts. It was this diſunion between capital and labour, and this growing diſpoſition to ſpeculation, that, by ſapping the induſtry, formed one of the leading cauſes of the decline and fall of the ſeven united provinces. The moſt healthy, happy, virtuous, and proſperous ſtate of ſociety, is that in which the union between perſonal induſtry, and capital acquired by perſonal induſtry, is the longeſt and the moſt effectually preſerved. What has been the main cauſe of the wretchedneſs of the Iriſh and the Highlanders of Scotland? The miſmen of the former; and the tackſmen of the latter: the letting and ſubletting of land without end. In order to ſtrike at the root of the great cauſe of the dearth of proviſions, diſcourage monopolization of land, and combination, which is monopolization, in circulating its produce. All idle ſpeculation on the productive labour of others, beyond what is neceſſary for the tranſference of various articles from one place to another, is an interception of the bounty of heaven falling on the earth in dews and rains, and fruitful ſeaſons, intended by Providence to fill the hearts of men with food and gladneſs.

To ſuch ſpeculation there is indeed, as juſt obſerved, a natural tendency in the progreſſion of ſociety: which cannot, with impunity, be altogether quaſhed, or even rudely checked. It is the duty of legiſlatures to provide ſome palliative, and counterpoiſe to an evil, which grows out of what is, to a certain extent, good. The idea propoſed by lord Warwick of licencing, and regulating the conduct of corn-dealers, appears to us to be highly worthy of all approbation. This meaſure, adopted and executed with due conſideration, might, in the natural progreſs of ideas, be found to have a connexion with other meaſures of wiſe and ſalutary improvement: among which, one of the firſt would probably be, to diſcourage and reſtrain the exceſſive monopolization of land, and on the other hand to encourage and enable, by all practicable, ſafe, eaſy, and gentle means, the actual cultivators of the ground, to become cultivators on their own account, and venders too, of grain, directly, in markets to the people. This laſt meaſure has been explained and recommended to legiſlatures more than 20 years ago, with great learning, ability, wiſdom, and prudence, by the author of "*An Eſſay on the Right of Property in Land*," who is now well enough known to be profeſſor Ogilvie, of the univerſity of Aberdeen; and ſince alſo, by Mr. Newte, of Tiverton, in his "*Tour in England and Scotland*," who alſo acknowledging the great merit of the ingenious profeſſor, confirms his doctrine, and ſhews its practicability and advantage by various new illuſtrations. Their doctrine, we are happy to find, appears to gain ground. It has been eſpouſed and ably maintained by other writers.

As to the enclоſure, diviſion, and cultivation of waſte-lands, recommended by lord Warwick and other friends to their country, the great difficulty here, is, that poor labourers have not a capital, which is neceſſary for that purpoſe. To this a complete remedy is propoſed by general Fullarton, in a pamphlet, addreſſed to lord Carrington. Let a bank be eſtabliſhed for lending money to the cultivators of land on regiſtered mortgages, or what, in the northern part of this iſland, is called heritable ſecurity.

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which no country could avail itſelf of the full extent of its reſources, or effectually and permanently provide for its wants. "But, ſir," Mr. Abbot continued, "in times like theſe, when the ſubſiſtence of the people is in queſtion, this knowledge becomes of the higheſt importance. It is ſurely important to know the extent of the demand, for which we are to provide a ſupply; and we ſhould ſet about obtaining it immediately, not only for the uſes of the current year (for which it muſt neceſſarily come late), but alſo for the year that is to follow; a conſideration inſeparably connected with the former, and to which we are bound to look forward with all its poſſible circumſtances. It is important alſo to obtain this information, for the purpoſe of knowing whether one of the chief cauſes, which for the laſt thirty years has made this country ceaſe to export, and obliged it to depend for ſuccour on its neighbours, is not an increaſed and increaſing population; becauſe this may fix our opinions not only upon the neceſſity of extending our ſcale of agriculture, but may ſerve alſo to ſhew us the degree and point to which that extenſion muſt neceſſarily be carried: and if it be true that we have three millions of acres in this iſland fit for the plough, and hitherto uncultivated, we may ſee in what proportion we are called upon to render them moſt profitable for the public ſubſiſtence; and whatever the plan and arrangement to be deviſed for preventing the recurrence of this evil, which his majeſty in his ſpeech has ſo earneſtly exhorted us to provide againſt, the extent and nature of the population of Great Britain muſt form a primary object in all ſuch conſiderations.

"Aſſuming, therefore, that the meaſure which I am propoſing is right in itſelf, and that the preſent times call upon us to carry it into effect, I will take the liberty of ſtating to the houſe what lights we have derived from the tranſactions of former times to guide us in the ſubject before us, and what ſort of reſults we have hitherto obtained, before I proceed to ſubmit to the conſideration of the houſe what appears to me to be the moſt adviſable courſe for our own conduct at preſent.

"Some numerations of the people of England appear to have been made in former times by public authority, but certainly with particular views, and for limited purpoſes. In the reign of Edward III. we have a ſubſidy roll for England, county by county, from whence the population of that period is eſtimated at 2,353,000 ſouls.

"In the reign of queen Elizabeth, the privy council called upon all the biſhops for certificates of the number of families in their reſpective dioceſes; and the population of that period is eſtimated at about 5,000,000. In the reign of James I. the biſhops, in like manner, certified the number of communicants and recuſants; and the people are eſtimated to have amounted at the reſtoration to 6,500,000. From theſe and other documents, ſuch as the military muſters, aſſeſſments, and pariſh regiſters, many private perſons of ſkill and learning have eſtimated the people of England to have amounted, at the revolution, to about 7,000,000. Some deſponding men have aſſerted, that the population afterwards decreaſed by a million

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million and a half, between the revolution and the peace of Paris in 1763, although there is now good reason for believing that it has really increased in that interval by 2,000,000. And, strange as it may appear, even the best opinions of modern times, and each of them highly respectable, estimate our present numbers, according to one statement, at 8,000,000; and, according to other statements, formed on more extensive investigation, and (as it appears to me) a more correct train of reasoning, shewing an increase of one-third in the last forty years, the total number now cannot be less than 11,000,000.

"As to Scotland, that country was estimated, I ought rather to say numbered, very accurately in 1755; but it was done by private inquiry; and that process has been since repeated with great industry, shewing also a considerable subsequent increase, in that country, of about one-fourth within the same period of time.

"But, in Ireland, where the means of calculation for this purpose have been more serviceable even than in England, the public opinion on the question, as applied to that country, is, nevertheless, still fluctuating to a very considerable extent. It is plain, therefore, that all these inquiries and estimates proceeding without authority, upon such imperfect data, have terminated (as might be expected) in nothing but unsatisfactory conjecture; and different persons reasoning even upon the same data, continue to give us very contradictory results.

"This being so, it remains for us to decide what should be done by us. Unquestionably, in my opinion, we are called upon, by every motive of general policy, and still more by the urgent pressure of our present circumstances, to do as other great nations have done, and substitute certainty for conjecture, and, instead of approximation, have the fact.

"It was the policy of the famous De Witt, in his day, to reduce all these fundamental points to a certainty; and the merits of his administration, at least for the internal politics of his country, have been allowed by all men. In Holland, this measure has been again recently executed. In Sweden, a regulation to the same effect was established so long ago as the year 1749, and is still in force. In Spain, a complete census has been twice taken during the present reign; viz. in the years 1768 and 1787. In America, it was taken in the year 1791; and the united states have again directed the same process to be carried into execution upon a still more extensive plan. And why should this great and powerful country choose to remain in ignorance of its most important concerns, when, by an instantaneous measure, it can at once dissipate every doubt?

"The means and the modes by which we may accomplish this object, appear to be obvious and easy; and I should propose to follow the course taken by this house in the year 1786, for obtaining information upon a point not foreign to this inquiry, I mean the poor rates. All that will be necessary, will be to pass a short act, requiring the resident clergy and parish officers in every parish and township to answer some few plain questions, perhaps four or five, easy to be understood, and easy to be executed, which should

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ſhould be ſpecified in a ſchedule to the act, and to return their anſwers to the clerk of the parliament, for the inſpection of both houſes of parliament. From ſuch materials, it will be eaſy (following the precedent of 1787) to form an abſtract, exhibiting the reſult of the whole. This abſtract may, of courſe, ſhew not only the total number of inhabitants in the whole and every part of the kingdom, but may alſo ſhew the proportion borne by the agricultural claſs to the other claſſes of his majeſty's ſubjects; and by ſhewing the increaſe or diminution of baptiſms, burials, and marriages, from the latter of which, I mean the marriages, of which the regiſters are much more comprehenſive, complete, and important, we ſhall have a correct knowledge of what concerns our increaſing or decreaſing demands for ſubſiſtence. And although we may find that an increaſed population adds to our ſtrength in war, it is evident that it requires a vigilant attention to the means of ſupporting it.

"Sir, let me aſk, if parliament had thought fit in antecedent times to adopt this courſe, and if ſuch a reſult as I have deſcribed were now before us, ſhould we not think ſuch knowledge moſt valuable in diſcuſſing our plans of preſent and future policy for the ſubſiſtence of the people? And unleſs we ourſelves inſtitute ſuch an inquiry at preſent, we ſhall not only forego it for our own loſs, but we ſhall alſo deprive thoſe who are to come after us of the aſſiſtance which they might derive from the poſitive knowledge of our ſtate, and ſtill more from a ſubſequent repetition of the ſame meaſures, and a view of their comparative reſult.

"Entertaining theſe ſentiments upon this important ſubject, I have thought it my duty, ſir, to bring the matter fully and diſtinctly before the houſe; and I ſhall therefore move for leave to bring in 'a bill for aſcertaining the population of Great Britain.'"—This motion, ſeconded by Mr. Wilberforce, being agreed to, the bill was brought into the houſe on the day after, and, through the uſual ſtages, carried into a law.

To the urgent buſineſs of providing a ſupply of food for the nation, a helping hand was lent by the directors of the Eaſt India company; who, with the concurrence and approbation of his majeſty's miniſters, on the 28th of Auguſt, 1800, ſent directions to their governments in India to afford every encouragement to individuals to ſend rice and other grain to England, engaging that the ſhips ſo employed ſhould be allowed to carry out return-cargoes, as had been allowed formerly to country ſhips; and, on the 30th of September, in order to encourage as large an importation as poſſible, before the next harveſt ſhould be got in, they ſent further directions to India, authorizing ſuch ſhips as brought three-fourths of their tonnage in rice, to bring alſo ſuch other goods as are uſually imported into this country, with an indemnification, in caſe rice ſhould be under certain prices here on their arrival. And they afterwards offered to grant licences to any ſhips, to be ſent from this country to the Eaſt Indies, for the purpoſe of bringing home rice, on very liberal conditions, but under the expreſs ſtipulation, that the ſhips ſhould be cleared out from the cuſtom-houſe before the 1ſt of December, 1800, or from any port in the

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the Eaſt Indies before the 1ſt of September, 1801.

But, of all the modes of relief afforded to the poor, or rather the ordinary claſs of the people, that which was adopted by the directors of the bank of England, in their conduct towards their ſervants, is entitled to the higheſt praiſe, and furniſhes an example every way worthy of imitation. They made a very liberal addition to the ſalaries of their numerous clerks and other ſervants. In miniſtering to the wants of the people, in the way of donation or charity, there is ſomething humiliating to ſelf-eſteem, and ſomething, too, that has no indirect tendency to relax induſtry, and weaken a confidence and pride in ſelf-exertion. The ſtep taken by the bank was not liable to either imputation. It may be remarked, at the ſame time, that the conduct of the bank was no more than juſtice. For, if, by their enormous iſſue of paper money, they leſſen the value of the old guinea, it was fit that they ſhould, in ſome meaſure, make up to their ſervants that diſadvantage.

Having thus given ſome account of the proceedings of parliament reſpecting the ſcarcity, we proceed to thoſe relating to the other great topic comprehended in his majeſty's ſpeech; the important queſtion of peace or war.

CHAP.

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CHAP. II.

Motion in the Houſe of Commons for Papers reſpecting the Evacuation of Egypt—negatived.—Motion for the ſame Purpoſe in the Houſe of Lords negatived.—Motion in the Houſe of Commons for a ſeparate Peace—negatived.—Motion in the ſame for a Diſmiſſal of his Majeſty's Miniſters—negatived.—Navy and Army, and other Eſtimates.—Supplies granted for three lunar Months.—Ways and Means.—Army Returns.—Army and Navy Sedition Bill.—Suſpenſion of Habeas Corpus.—Alien Bill.—Prorogation of Parliament.—Proclamation reſpecting the Compoſition and the Meeting of the Imperial Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.—New Arrangements required by that great Event.

ON the 13th of November, 1800, copies of the correſpondence between his majeſty's miniſters and the French government, reſpecting overtures towards opening a negotiation for peace,* were preſented to the houſe of lords by the ſecretary, lord Grenville, and to the houſe of commons by Mr. ſecretary Dundas.—On the 18th, as no motion had been made by miniſters for taking that correſpondence into conſideration,

Mr. T. Jones begged the attention of the houſe to the ſubject of the evacuation of Egypt; a ſubject to which he had already called that attention laſt ſeſſion, and which had now become, by the incapacity of his majeſty's miniſters, the bone of contention between England and France, and the ſtumbling-block of peace. From the correſpondence on the table, it was evident that thoſe counſels which oppoſed the evacuation of Egypt by the invading army, preſented a very ſerious obſtacle to the concluſion, and even to the negotiation of a peace. Of the two points moſt inſiſted on by France, and which operated as impediments to peace, one was the demand of ſending ſuccours to Egypt; and it remained for the houſe to inquire, why that difficulty had not been precluded, by accepting the terms of the convention agreed on, by general Kleber and the grand vizier, and guarantied by the ſanction of a general officer. Mr. Jones, after ſix motions that he had made on the 23d of July, laſt ſeſſion, on the ſubject of the evacuation of Egypt, were read by the clerk, ſaid, that the object of his motion this day would be, the production of a letter, on the ſubject of which almoſt the whole

* The ſubſtance and reſult of that correſpondence is given in our laſt volume, Hiſtory of Europe, p. 223: and the correſpondence itſelf in the Appendix.

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of the voluminous correſpondence which he held in his hand turned. Having read a number of extracts from the correſpondence, and particularly lord Grenville's inſtruction to Mr. Hammond, for holding a conference with Mr. Otto, on the ſubject of the propoſed armiſtice between Great Britain and France, he aſked if ſir Sidney Smith was not joined with his brother Mr. Spencer Smith, as joint plenipotentiary of Great Britain at the court of Conſtantinople? Had he not power to treat at Acre? Did not miniſtry know that, in conjunction with the baſhaw Gliezzar, ſir Sidney offered to convey the French out of Egypt, individually or in the aggregate? Did his majeſty's miniſters, previous to January 24, 1800, countermand the orders under which, it was preſumed, he acted from the beginning of May in the preceding year, as if not warranted in his conduct? Did they, to prevent a repetition of ſuch conduct, expreſs their anger within the eight following months, or even ſome time after he had acceded to the convention? Did not lord Elgin, before and ſince the preſent year, inſtruct ſir Sidney Smith to get the French out of Egypt by all poſſible means? Was not the intention of the court of London, not to ratify the original treaty, ſent immediately to general Kleber in the firſt inſtance? Ought it not to have been ſent to the French general through ſir Sidney Smith? Ought not our ally, the Ottoman Porte, to have had the earlieſt notice? And, farther, did not La Conſtance galley deliver the letter of lord Keith, firſt to Kleber, at Alexandria, and then proceed with the ſame inſtructions to ſir Sidney, who was on duty at Cyprus? What was the conſequence? Did not eight or nine thouſand of our good allies periſh in the field? Was not the very exiſtence of the Ottoman government threatened at its centre? In Mr. Hammond's letter to lord Grenville, after the conference with Mr. Otto, which letter referred, almoſt in every line, to Egypt, there was this particular aſſertion, "Mr. Otto added, that he would not conceal from me, that the reinforcement which France intended to ſend to Egypt amounted to 1200 men; and that the ſupply of military ſtores conſiſted chiefly of 10,000 muſkets. The language of Mr. Otto, in this part of our converſation, and of Mr. Talleyrand's letter, appeared to me to be ſo deciſive, and peremptory, that I was induced to aſk of him, diſtinctly, whether I was to underſtand, that this ſtipulation was a point from which the French government would not recede? Mr. Otto replied, that, in his opinion, the French government would not recede from it." Mr. Jones having recapitulated the whole of the correſpondence, moved, "That the letter alluded to in general Klebe's letter to the Kaimakan of the ſublime Porte, be now laid on the table of that houſe."

Mr. Pitt replied, that it would be hardly poſſible for his majeſty's miniſters to comply with the object of the preſent motion. It would be a very difficult thing for government to undertake for the production of a letter referred to in one from general Kleber to the Kaimakan, even ſuppoſing the repreſentation given of it to be true, and the deſcription of it in the motion proper, which it was not. But the anſwer he had to give

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the reasoning of the honourable gentleman was exceedingly short. The motion appeared to be altogether unnecessary. He was not aware of any good end that could be answered, nor of any blame that could be fixed on ministers, in consequence of a French general being referred to a letter, which, evidently, on the face of the transaction, must have been written before government was acquainted with the convention alluded to having been signed by any British officer. The letter therefore could no state any new fact: nor had Mr. Jones offered any thing in addition to what he had urged unsuccessfully in the last session of parliament. As soon as it was known in England, that the French general had the faith of a British officer pledged to him, and was disposed to act upon it, instructions were sent out to have the convention executed, though the officer in question had, in fact, no authority to sign it. The contents of lord Keith's letter were far from being a secret. It was printed, quoted, and universally known in July last, when Mr. Jones brought forward a question on the same subject, which the house thought proper to negative. The next thing for the house to consider, was, in what manner the present subject was connected with the late correspondence between France and this country relative to an armistice. By the observations accompanying the motion, it was shewn, that, in making the proposal, the French government meant to derive great advantage from the relief it might be enabled to send both to Malta and Egypt; a relief which it could not hope for, while our fleets and armies pursued their operations against them: and thus, it was evident that France set great value on reinforcing those places, which we had an equal interest in preventing them from doing. As we had, since the convention of El-Arish, taken Malta from the enemy, we were, in a degree proportionate to the importance of that island, masters of preventing them from sending any reinforcements to Egypt, the maritime places of which were, besides, blocked by our fleets. So far then it was plain, that, in respect to Egypt, France was not on higher ground, now that we were in possession of Malta, than it was at the time when general Kleber first entered into the capitulation. And he could not conceive what it was that gentlemen thought they could complain of. When parliament considered the conduct of his majesty's ministers, in refusing to acquiesce in a convention which they did not know to have had the sanction of a British officer, it should discuss that conduct with a reference to what was the state of Kleber's army at the time; with a reference to the condition of the war in Italy at the beginning of the campaign, when it was extremely doubtful whether the issue might be favourable to one side or the other; and most of all in this doubtful state of the termination of the contest, with a reference to the effect which such a reinforcement as that of the army of Egypt might be likely, under all the circumstances, to have on the war on the continent.

Mr. Grey, in answer to these positions, respecting the position of Kleber's army, the state of the belligerent armies in Italy, and the existing circumstances of the war,

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all together, said, that the present motion did not preclude the consideration of any of these topics, but only asked for such information as would enable the house to judge of admiral Keith's instructions. It was not to be supposed, that the present motion would stand alone; but, if carried, be followed by others of a more comprehensive nature. With respect to sir Sidney Smith's powers, it was not necessary for him to be specially instructed, either to sanction or to reject a convention. Sir Sidney was the British officer commanding on the spot. And nothing was more undeniable, than that every military commandant had power to accept any stipulations, which his prudence might direct him to agree to with the enemy, without having any special authority for the purpose. On such occasions, government were bound, in good faith, to admit what their officers stipulated: and, if it were otherwise, the consequences would be subversive of those principles on which war was now conducted between civilized nations. On these and other grounds, Mr. Grey defended the propriety and the necessity of the motion: which he considered as a preliminary step to farther inquiry into the the conduct of ministers on this important and interesting subject. Mr. Grey's observations on the powers of sir Sidney Smith, were supported by Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Tierney, and Mr. Hobhouse. Mr. Sheridan observed, that the house of commons could not, without a neglect of its duty, omit entering into an inquiry into the matter before them: for he held it as a principle, which should never be lost sight of, that when an officer, either general or admiral, was employed, to take it for granted, that whatever such an officer did in name, and on the behalf of the country he served, was done according to his instructions, until the contrary was proved; otherwise nations could never confide in any proposal. Mr. Tierney said, that it was a part of the national compact to regard officers under government, abroad upon service in time of war, as having a certain portion of power, to be exercised according to their discretion, for the purpose of alleviating, or perhaps putting an end to, the horrors of war. What was observed by Mr. Hobhouse, had a reference to what had been asserted by Mr. Pitt, who had spoken a second time in explanation, on the present subject. Mr. Pitt, said, that, before the order to lord Keith went out, there was no supposition that sir Sidney Smith was then in Egypt, nor that he would be a party to the treaty between the Ottoman Porte and the French general. When he did take a part in that transaction, it was not a direct part. He did not exercise any direct power: if he had done so, he would have done it without authority. He had no such power from his situation: for he was not commander-in-chief. Large powers, for obvious reasons, must be given to a commander-in-chief, subject to the discretion of the person with whom they were intrusted. But that neither was nor ought to be the case with every officer of inferior station. Such person, however great his talents, should not go beyond a specified point; for otherwise he might treat for whole provinces, and counteract his superior in command. But Mr. Hob-

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house observed, that if even a subordinate officer, intrusted with the direction of a particular enterprise, entered, as sir Sidney Smith had done, into a convention, which, strictly speaking, he had no powers to conclude, many examples could be found, of cases in which the commander-in chief thought himself bound to ratify what the subordinate officer had done, and in which government had ratified the consent of the commanding officer. Was not this the case at Cape Nicola Mole, when general Whitlock, though a subordinate officer, without any specific powers, and without the consent of the commander-in chief, agreed to a convention which general Williamson, the commander-in-chief, afterwards thought himself bound to ratify, and which was afterwards ratified by government? An objection had been made to the form in which the motion was worded. This, indeed, Mr. Hobhouse did not think quite so accurate, and recommended it to his honourable friend to make some alteration in it.

Mr. Yorke, after observing that the motion was not of a parliamentary form, because parliament could have no power over a letter which must be in the possession of general Kleber, expressed his astonishment that any one could have the confidence to say, in that house, that the British fleet was in the least degree injured by that which took place, on our behalf, in Egypt; and that the more especially after we had been in possession of the intercepted French correspondence on that subject.

Mr. Percival said, that the English, after the orders from government had been communicated to them by lord Keith, had done nothing to break the treaty. The English committed no act of hostility. But the French, on receiving the communication from lord Keith, had chosen to break it themselves. If there was any breach of faith, it was on the side of the French. When government heard that the French had trusted and acted on the belief that this country would consent to the convention, it sent out orders not to ratify, but to respect it. With regard to the motion before the house, he could not recollect that he had ever heard one supported by less argument. He readily allowed, that the publication of a letter was not a sufficient means of information for the purpose of founding on it any specific motion. But, if this was the intention, the supporters of the motion ought to have argued from the contents of the letter, that it would afford ground on which to rest a motion.

Mr. Jones, as a proof that this country was a party in the convention of El-Arish, stated, that it was an article in this, that passports should be given to the French by the Porte, and by its allies, Russia and England. As to the form of the motion, said Mr. Jones, I am prepared. On such occasions as these, I generally go doubly armed, and now move, "That an humble address be presented to his majesty, that he will be graciously pleased to give directions, that copies of all letters from the commander-in-chief of the fleet in the Mediterranean to general Kleber be laid on the table of this house." This motion was rejected by 80 noes against 42 ayes.

The repeated miscarriage of Mr. Jones's motions, in the house of commons,

commons, did not discourage lord Holland from moving, on the 23d of December, 1800, in the house of lords, the production of certain papers relative to the evacuation of Egypt. His lordship adverted to the circumstances of the treaty of El-Arish, and concluded, from the information suffered to transpire, that Kleber had necessarily broken the convention for his own security; which unhappy affair had had a material effect on the late negotiations. He censured the conduct of ministers in the whole transaction, as guided by a narrow system of policy, which, in order to grasp at little advantages, suffers occasions of important aggrandisement to go by. Being therefore persuaded that the present tenure of Egypt by the French was owing to the misconduct of his majesty's ministers, and was a principal obstacle to our enjoyment of the blessings of peace, he thought it a duty incumbent on him to call for such papers as would tend to throw light on the subject. He therefore moved,

"That an humble address be presented to his majesty, entreating that his majesty would be graciously pleased to order that there be laid before the house, a copy of the powers granted to sir Sidney Smith, on his mission to the sublime Porte:

"Copies of all letters written by the English ambassador at Constantinople to sir Sidney Smith, during his stay at Acre and El-Arish:

"Copies of the instructions sent out by his majesty's ministers to the commander-in-chief of the Mediterranean fleet:

"And copies of all letters written by the commander-in-chief to any of the French generals commanding in Egypt."

Lord Grenville, on the question being put, said, that he feared no contradiction in asserting, that the continuance of the French army in Egypt was not occasioned by the breach of the convention of El-Arish; that they had practised a deception on the Ottoman government, and amused them with hopes of a negotiation which they broke. He was unwilling to say much of the conduct of a person who was now no more: but he was compelled to declare, that nothing could have been more unjustifiable than the perfidious conduct of general Kleber, in the attack he afterwards made on the army of the grand vizier by surprise. That general had been guilty of the violation of the treaty of El-Arish, by declaring afterwards that he would evacuate it, with *several variations* which circumstances rendered necessary: whilst his aid-de-camp had assured the Kaimakan, that general Kleber would execute the engagements as soon as transports arrived. He really believed that, among all the instances which Great Britain had given during this war of good faith, if he was called on to select one out of the rest, he should be inclined to pitch upon this very resolution of the British government to abide by the convention entered into between the Turks (not the British government) and the French at El-Arish.

Lord Hobart entreated the house to consider, what was the state of affairs on the continent of Europe at that time, and what might probably have been the consequence, if 20,000 seasoned troops, flushed with success, had been permitted to come to Egypt, and join the French army on the continent? Had

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the result of such an addition to the French force been similar to what was unfortunately the result of the late campaign in Italy, he would ask what blame would not, in that case, have been imputed to the conduct of ministers, in permitting the French army to evacuate Egypt, and join their forces in Europe? The eagerness of lord Holland to speak further on this subject being restrained by the chancellor, the house divided: when the motion was negatived by 12 votes against two.

Of a debate involving so deeply the character of the British government and nation, we have given a fuller account than might have been warranted, had not their good faith been loudly arraigned both abroad and at home. It is not our manner to interrupt our brief narrative, whether of facts or reasonings, by reflections, yet, on the present occasion, we cannot help remarking, that the good policy of our government, in the whole of their conduct respecting the convention of El-Arish, was as little censurable on the ground of policy as on that of good faith. The conduct of all ministers ought to be strictly watched; and, in this country, it still happily is so. Some charges, however, would be spared, if it were duly considered that ministers possess, on great political questions, the best means of information, and the best opportunities of contemplating events and councils in all their bearings. As, on the one hand, the public prosperity is sometimes ascribed to government, when it is purely the work of fortune; so they may be sometimes right when they are thought wrong by those whose positions do not command a view of the whole of the passing scenes to be taken into consideration.

On the subject of that part of his majesty's speech which related to the late negotiations for peace, a motion was made in the house of commons, on the 1st of December, by

Mr. Sheridan, who, instead of pointing out with minuteness, as he had once intended, where ministers had been guilty of insincerity, where of prevarication, where of hypocrisy, where of weakness, and endeavoured to prove from the past conduct of our allies, and their present views, that we ought to disentangle ourselves from all continental connexions as soon as possible, and, by entering into a separate negotiation, conclude a separate peace. In doing this, he laid down two propositions, and established upon these two separate conclusions. The first proposition was, that, from the commencement of the confederacy, there had existed in the different states which composed it, a mercenary spirit, a sole view to private aggrandisement, the grossest and most shameful insincerity. The conclusion from hence was, that we should withdraw from it, and avoid the obstacles which it threw in the way of peace. The second proposition was, that there appeared the strongest ground to suspect, that in all the negotiations for peace which ministers had carried on, although they might not have thwarted their plenipotentiaries, although there might have been conditions to which they would have acceded, still that they had never sincerely wished for success, and never sincerely lamented the want of it. The inference from this was plain. Since the same ministers remained in office, the interference

breach of parliament was neceſſary. That alone could alter their intentions, counteract the miſchiefs which their views were calculated to produce, or afford the leaſt chance of ſalvation to the country. Mr. Sheridan having made a variety of obſervations in ſupport of his propoſitions, ſaid, that a ſolid peace could be concluded only on the principles of one man. Who that man was it was needleſs for him to mention. All right to interfere with the internal concerns of other nations muſt be diſclaimed: and for commanding due reſpect to the conſtitution, they muſt truſt to the good ſenſe and loyalty of the people, and diſdain the idea that jacobiniſm could make any impreſſion on England. He concluded with moving, "That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, humbly to aſſure him, that they had taken into their moſt ſerious conſideration the papers relative to the negotiation for peace with France, and that the reſult of their reflections on that important ſubject, founded as well on due examination of the documents now referred to them, as on experience of the paſt conduct of moſt of his majeſty's allies, was an humble but earneſt deſire, that his majeſty would omit no proper opportunity which might ariſe, conſiſtently with the good faith ever preſerved on the part of his majeſty, of entering into a ſeparate negotiation with the government of France for a ſpeedy and honourable peace: and, further, to implore his majeſty not to ſanction any new engagements which ſhould preclude ſuch a mode of negotiation."

Mr. Windham, the ſecretary at war, repreſented the reaſoning of Mr. Sheridan as abſurd and even ridiculous. It amounted to this, that the exertions of the allies, however great it was neceſſary they ſhould be, ought to be made by each party *ſeparately* and not *jointly*. The beſt way for us, who are confederates, would be, to keep aloof from one another, and try our power ſeparately. "Why really," ſaid Mr. Windham, "there is attached to this aſſertion a degree of extravagance, and even ridicule, that prevents our making many obſervations on it, ſince it is difficult, if not impoſſible, for any obſervation to anſwer it better than the ſtatement anſwers itſelf."—To the charge of perfidy againſt the powers who had acted in alliance with us, Mr. Windham replied, that, in his opinion, we had not reaſon to complain, in many reſpects, even of the breach of faith: certainly not as he had ſtated the matter; for although ſome of thoſe powers had manifeſted a weakneſs in ſuffering themſelves to be occupied by their own ſeparate purſuits, yet the concluſion was not made good, that the cauſe of Europe was not benefited by this war, even in the points in which the confederates had moſt failed. "If a power, after having aſſiſted you for a while, leave you, it is not correct to ſay, you have loſt by that power. You have loſt only the benefit of a continuance of its ſupport. You cannot, with any propriety of reaſoning, be ſaid to have loſt any thing elſe: for indeed you may have gained much; and that indeed," ſaid Mr. Windham, "is our caſe in the preſent inſtance. For we have benefited much by the efforts of the allies while they continued in the common cauſe." With a reference to what Mr. Sheridan had ſaid of diſclaiming all right to interfere in the

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internal concerns of other nations, and disdaining all dread of jacobinism, Mr. Windham said, "gentlemen talk of the spirit of peace, by which they explain themselves to mean that we are to lay aside all jealousy of the principles of a jacobin republic; and that we are to cherish such principles, and with pure love take the fraternal embrace and kiss. I say, God avert such a peace from this country." Mr. Windham at the same time acknowledged, in another part of his speech, that the contradiction, the explosion, and the execration of the modern doctrines of the rights of man, had, in his opinion, abated the danger which would attend a pacification with a jacobine republic. As to the possibility of making peace only on the principles of Mr. Fox, Mr. Windham professed great respect for the talents of that right honourable gentleman, but his opinions and sentiments on the present war, he neither could admire, nor think on them without repugnance. They were, indeed, adapted to the peace of which Mr. Sheridan had spoken to-night. Let the house, Mr. Windham said, in conclusion, consider how they listen to propositions for peace, do away alliances on the continent, and put an end to the means of carrying on the war, for the sake of making way for the counsels of those who want to make a peace of pure love with a jacobine republic, instead of the spirit which this country ought to cherish of jealousy of such pernicious principles.

Mr. Grey defended the reasoning of Mr. Sheridan on the fragility of confederacies. He had not said that they might never be subservient to important purposes, or that their object could never be precise or intelligible. What he asserted was this, that confederacies among the members of which there was no harmony of design, no concert in operation, no cordial wish for a common end, whose object was unintelligible, and whose aim was not explicit, were destructive of any state. Out of the papers which formed the ground of the motion now before the house, it seemed to Mr. Grey that there were three leading questions: 1st, Whether a naval armistice was *prima facie* objectionable? 2d, Whether the modifications proposed in the course of the discussions were particularly exposed to objection? and 3d, Whether, supposing that the proposed terms were such as could not be entertained, ministers were then justifiable in not acceding to the proposal of a joint negotiation? Mr. Grey did not, any more than Mr Sheridan, disapprove of the conduct of ministers in their several principles on the first of these questions; though it did not appear to him that, if once the principle of the armistice were admitted, the terms of the French were particularly unreasonable. Still, however, there were so many objections to the adoption of the principle, and the modifications which could at all sanction its adoption, that little expectation could be entertained of the success of negotiations of which this was to form the commencement. If even the supply of 12,000 men would have removed one of the obstacles to negotiation, he would not have purchased negotiation on such a condition. With regard to the armistice as modified by our proposal, France could not derive from thence a single advantage.

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tage. In no one point of view would it have ſerved to equal the ſacrifices made in the armiſtice by the French to Auſtria. From a review of the whole circumſtances of the propoſed armiſtice, he had reaſon to believe, that the propoſal was never ſeriouſly intended to be adopted by either party; but, though the principle of joint negotiation was ſo involved in difficulties, that it came to be rejected, the enemy offered us an opportunity of treating ſeparately for peace. The preciſe point here was, whether, knowing as we did, the diſpoſition of our allies on former occaſions, and particularly the general conduct of Auſtria in the preſent war, miniſters were entitled to ſacrifice the peace of the country to the proſpect of any advantages to be derived from joint negotiation. In propoſals for peace, it might appear, at firſt ſight, to be moſt adviſable to connect our intereſts with thoſe of our allies; but, from a review of treaties and negotiations, Mr. Grey endeavoured to ſhew that this notion was erroneous. The ſame concluſion, he obſerved, was deducible from reaſoning on human nature. The ruinous conſequences of the greater number of confederacies had been forcibly ſtated by Mr. Sheridan. He would now add, that the ſame objections might, with little variation, be applied to joint negotiations for peace. The intereſts to be attended to were ſo diſcordant, the compenſations to be made were ſo much the objects of jealouſy, and the propenſity to oppoſition was encouraged by ſo many circumſtances, that it was no wonder to perceive them ſo ſeldom attended with cordiality, or followed up with ſucceſs. On the whole, Mr. Grey, ſeeing nothing in reaſoning, in hiſtory, or the particular circumſtances of the caſe, to inſpire a wiſh for joint negotiation, he conſidered miniſters as highly culpable in refuſing to treat ſeparately for peace; and, as there were ſo many proofs of their incapacity and want of foreſight, which muſt be evident to the houſe, he would conclude with giving his moſt cordial ſupport to a motion, the adoption of which might ſpeedily tend to diſentangle the nation from its preſent embarraſſments.

Mr. Dundas obſerved, that the chief object of the motion which had been made, and of part of the arguments which they had heard, was, to convince the houſe, that it was not the intereſt of this nation to connect itſelf with Auſtria; and that was the advice they gave the houſe, at a moment when the recommencement of hoſtilities between Auſtria and France had been announced, and when they did not know whether hoſtilities had not actually recommenced, or what had been the iſſue of the conflict. But they did know, that the advice given by Mr. Sheridan was neither more nor leſs than this, to tell France to "preſs upon Auſtria as hard as they could, for we have counſelled the king of Great Britain to give her no aſſiſtance whatever." This was the general object of the motion. It did not ſay whether miniſters had acted hitherto right or wrong. Indeed one part of their conduct, namely, that reſpecting a naval armiſtice, had met with the approbation of both the gentlemen who ſupported the motion. Mr. Dundas reminded the houſe, that, by an eſtabliſhed maxim of our conſtitution, in all queſtions of peace or war, the

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decision belonged to the king, and that it was not the province of that house to interfere, unless on very great and important occasions; and such occasions could scarcely occur, except when the interposition of the house ought to be accompanied with an advice to his majesty to choose new counsellors. For a more contradictory and absurd proposition could not be conceived, than for that house to say, "We place so little confidence in your majesty's present advisers, that we think we ought, with a view to the future safety of the country, to take on ourselves the task of giving your majesty advice; but, at the same time, we think your present ministers ought to continue in office." But Mr. Dundas, without resting the defence of administration on the general maxim of the constitution, to which he had now referred, relied on the circumstances of the case; and proceeded to shew, that, engaged as we were in an arduous contest with such an enemy as France, it would have been very unwise to separate ourselves from such an ally as Austria.

To what had been alleged by Mr. Dundas, respecting the absurdity of assuming the province, and yet approving the continuance of the present ministers in office, no reply was made either by Mr. Sheridan or Mr. Grey.—Thus the debate was cut short: though the purpose of voting, for or against the motion, as usual, seemed to remain unchanged; for, on a division of the house, there appeared for the motion, 35; against it, 156.

The defect or inconsistency of Mr. Sheridan's motion was completely avoided by Mr. T. Jones, who, in the same spirit, and for the same purpose, on the 4th of December, moved, in the house of commons, the dismissal of his majesty's ministers directly, and point blank. After arraigning their conduct, and representing the distress and dangers in which this had involved the public, in his own peculiar manner, in which there appears to be a mixture of bluntness, and a kind of serio-comic buffoonery, not unimpressive, he moved, "That an humble address be presented to his majesty, earnestly imploring his majesty, that, taking into his royal consideration the sufferings of his loyal and affectionate people, he will be graciously pleased no longer to listen to the counsels of his present ministers, who, by their profusion and extravagance, have brought their country to the brink of famine and ruin; and who, by their incapacity, have shewn themselves unequal to conduct the war with effect, or enter into negotiations of peace with honour." This motion was supported by Mr. Nicholls and Mr. Robson; and nothing, on the ministerial side of the house, was said against it. On a division of the house, however, there appeared for the motion, 13; against it, 66.

In this, which, though short, was an integral session of parliament, estimates were given in to the house of commons, respecting the different branches of the public service, and suitable supplies were voted for three lunar months. For the service of the navy 120,000 men, including 22,696 marines, were granted, from the 1st of January to the 1st of April, 1801. A sum, in the language of parliament, *not exceeding* 666,000*l.* was granted for the payment of the said men, for the period just specified, at 1*l.* 17*s.* per month;

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month; 694,000*l.* was granted for victualling them, at the rate of *l.* 18*s.* per man per month. For the army, there was voted the number of 58,528 effective men, commiſſioned and non-commiſſioned officers, including 5797 invalids, for guards and garriſons in Great Britain, Jerſey, Guernſey, and Alderney, to be employed from the 25th day of December, 1800, to the 24th day of March, 1801, both inclusive, being ninety days; and, for their maintenance, there was granted a ſum not exceeding 506,255*l.* The ſum of 501,486*l.* was granted for maintaining, for the ſame period, his majeſty's forces in the plantations, including thoſe ſerving in Portugal, at Gibraltar, and in the Mediterranean; thoſe ſtationed at the Cape of Good Hope, and a corps of foot in New South Wales: 374,350*l.* for defraying the charge of the embodied militia of Great Britain, of the royal corps of miners of Cornwall and Devon, and of ſeveral corps of ſencible infantry: 310,000*l.* for defraying the charge of the increaſed rates of ſubſiſtence to be paid to innkeepers and others, on quartering ſoldiers; and the charge of an allowance to be made to the non-commiſſioned officers and private men of his majeſty's land forces in Great Britain, in lieu of ſmall-beer: 127,500*l.* for recruiting and contingencies for his majeſty's land forces, of forage for the cavalry in barracks in Great Britain, and of extra feed for thoſe in quarters: 145,000*l.* for defraying the charge of volunteer corps of cavalry and infantry in Great Britain: 171,200*l.* for defraying the expenſes expected to be incurred in the barrack-maſter-general's department: 150,000*l.* for defraying the charge of foreign corps in the ſervice of Great Britain: 205,000*l.* for defraying the ordinary eſtabliſhment of the navy for three lunar months, commencing the 1ſt day of January, 1801: 20,000*l.* for defraying the expenſes of the extraordinary eſtabliſhment of the navy for the ſame period: 35,000*l.* for the maintenance of ſick priſoners of war: 475,000*l.* for the expence of the tranſport ſervice, and for the maintenance of priſoners of war in health: 437,000*l.* for the charge of the office of ordnance for land ſervice: 35,000*l.* for foreign and other ſecret ſervices: 60,000*l.* for the relief of the ſuffering clergy and laity of France, and American loyaliſts: 8000*l.* for defraying the expences of confining, maintaining, and employing convicts at home. All theſe ſums for the expenſes of the different articles for the months of January, February, and March, 1801. As ways and means for raiſing this ſupply, the land and malt taxes, with thoſe on mum, cider, and perry, were continued from the 24th day of June, 1801, to the 24th day of June, 1802: certain duties on ſugar, ſnuff, and tobacco, were continued from the 25th day of March, 1801, to the 25th day of March, 1802; and the ſum of four ſhillings in the pound was to be raiſed within the ſpace of one year, from the 25th day of March, 1801, upon penſions, offices, and perſonal eſtates, in that part of Great Britain called England, Wales, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed.

On the 31ſt of December, 1800, the ARMY RETURNS were preſented to the houſe of commons by the ſecretary at war. From theſe it appeared, that the number of men that had been raiſed for the ſervice of the army, ſince the commence-

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ment of the preſent war, as far as could be made up from the documents in the adjutant-general's office, 24th of December, 1800, was, in all, 208,888. That the number of men, for the ſame period, who had been diſcharged from the ſervice of the army, on account of wounds, bodily infirmities, and other cauſes, was, in all, 75,910. But this number included not only thoſe entirely diſcharged from the ſervice, but ſuch as had been transferred from one regiment to another; both having been placed under the head of "diſcharged men."

That the number of men killed in action, or who had died in the ſervice of the army, ſince the commencement of the preſent war, was 48,97[illegible].

That the number of effective men, rank and file, including invalids, militia, and foreign corps, as well as the regular and fencible troops, ſerving, in the pay of Great Britain, on the 24th of December, 1800, was 168,082.

The army and navy ſedition bill was continued till the 1ſt of Auguſt, 1807, the term at which its expiration had been fixed by the Iriſh parliament. The ſuſpenſion of habeas corpus was continued for ſix weeks, from the 1ſt of February, 1801, the date of its expiration. Before the legiſlature ſhould come to a deciſion, on the expediency of renewing it for any length of time, it was thought proper to wait the deliberations of the Iriſh parliament. The alien bill was continued until the period of ſix months after the peace. Theſe three bills did not paſs without oppoſition, particularly the continued ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus law. On the laſt day of the year, the king, after giving the royal ſanction to the bills that were thought neceſſary to be paſſed, cloſed the ſeſſion of parliament.—His majeſty, "after returning his particular acknowledgments to both houſes of parliament, for the diſtinguiſhed induſtry and zeal with which they had applied themſelves to the relief of the public diſtreſs, obſerved, that the time fixed for the commencement of the union of Great Britain and Ireland neceſſarily terminated their proceedings on that important ſubject; but he expreſſed his perſuaſion, that the conſideration of it would be reſumed with the ſame zeal and temper on the firſt meeting of the parliament of the united kingdom. The detention of the property of his ſubjects in the ports of Ruſſia, contrary to the moſt ſolemn treaties, and the impriſonment of Britiſh ſailors in that country, had excited in him ſentiments, in which, he was ſure, that the parliament and all his ſubjects would participate. He had already taken ſuch ſteps as that occaſion indiſpenſably required; but, if it ſhould become neceſſary to maintain, *againſt any combination*, the honour and independence of the Britiſh empire, and thoſe maritime rights and intereſts, on which both our proſperity and ſecurity muſt always depend, he entertained no doubt, either of the ſucceſs of thoſe means, which, in ſuch an event, he ſhould be enabled to exert, or of the determination of his parliament and his people to afford him a ſupport, proportioned to the importance of the intereſts to be maintained."

As the period had now arrived, when the whole frame of our government was to be diſſolved, though inſtantly renovated and enlarged on the former plan, and the firſt day of the

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the new year and century was to usher in a new form, and a new title of government, his majesty, before he retired, ordered the chancellor to read a proclamation, declaring that the individuals, who composed the expiring parliament, should be the members, on the part of Britain, of the parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and that this imperial parliament should assemble on the 22d day of January, 1801. Immediately after leaving the house of lords, he held a grand council, in which some arrangements required by that great event were settled. A proclamation was issued on the 1st of January, 1801, the forty-first year of his majesty's reign, declaring his majesty's pleasure concerning the royal style and titles appertaining to the imperial crown of Great Britain and Ireland, and its dependencies, and also the ensigns armorial, flags, and banners thereof. The royal style and titles were to be expressed, in the Latin tongue, by these words: "GEORGIUS Tertius, Dei gratia, Britanniarum rex, fidei defensor;" and, in the English tongue, "GEORGE the Third, by the grace of God, of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, king, defender of the faith." The arms or ensigns armorial of the united kingdom were ordered to be quarterly: first and fourth, England; second, Scotland; third, Ireland.—There was to be borne therewith, on an escutcheon of pretence, the arms of his majesty's dominions in Germany, ensigned with the electoral bonnet. The standard of the united kingdom to be the same quartering that was declared to be the arms or ensigns armorial of the said united kingdom, with the escutcheon of pretence thereon described. The union flag to be azure, bearing the crosses of St. George, St. Andrew, and St. Patrick. On the same day, January 1, 1801, a royal proclamation declared the ensign or colours to be borne at sea in merchant-ships belonging to any of his majesty's subjects of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging. That the royal ships might be clearly and easily distinguished from vessels belonging to any of the king's subjects, an ensign, accurately described, was appointed for all merchant-ships or others not in his majesty's service. A new great seal was made, of course, in conformity with the alterations that had taken place in the royal titles and arms.

In honour of the union many promotions were made, and many new titles conferred, on noblemen of Ireland: a considerable number of whom either received advancement of rank in their own order, or were created peers of the united kingdom.

CHAP.

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CHAP. III.

The Imperial Parliament aſſembled.—Speech from the Throne.—Motion for an Addreſs.—Amendment propoſed.—Debates thereon.—Amendment rejected.—Addreſs carried by a great Majority—and preſented to his Majeſty.

THE parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, otherwiſe called the imperial parliament, was opened, by commiſſion, on the 22d of January, 1801, when the lord chancellor acquainted the houſe of commons, that it was his majeſty's pleaſure that they ſhould immediately proceed to elect a ſpeaker. The commons then withdrew, and elected their late ſpeaker, Mr. Addington. This election was, on the next day, confirmed in the ſame manner by the royal approbation. The king, however, did not meet the parliament till the 2d of February. In his ſpeech from the throne, his majeſty adverted to the happy accompliſhment of the legiſlative union of the two kingdoms; the unfortunate courſe of events on the continent; and the conduct proper to be obſerved in conſequence of it. The repreſentations which he had directed to be made to the court of Peterſburgh, reſpecting the outrages committed againſt the ſhips, property, and perſons of his ſubjects, had been treated with the utmoſt diſreſpect; and the proceedings of which he had complained, had been aggravated by ſubſequent acts of injuſtice and violence. Under theſe circumſtances, a convention had been concluded by that court with thoſe of Copenhagen and Stockholm, the object of which, as avowed by one of the contracting parties, was, to renew their former engagements for re-eſtabliſhing by force a new code of maritime law, inconſiſtent with the rights, and hoſtile to the intereſts of this country. He had taken the earlieſt meaſures to repel the aggreſſions of this hoſtile confederacy; at the ſame time, that he had given ſuch aſſurances, as manifeſted his diſpoſition to renew his ancient relations with thoſe powers, whenever it could be done conſiſtently with the honour of his crown, and with a juſt regard to the ſafety of his ſubjects. He expreſſed his confidence, that both houſes of parliament would afford him the moſt vigorous and effectual ſupport in his firm determination to maintain to the utmoſt, againſt every attack, the naval rights and intereſts of his empire. From external relations, he paſſed to the internal or domeſtic ſtate of the united kingdom. He expreſſed his confidence, that their deliberations would be uniformly directed to the great object

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ject of improving the benefits of that happy union, which, by the bleſſing of Providence, had now been effected, and of promoting, to the utmoſt, the proſperity of every part of his dominions. He truſted, alſo, that they would reſume the inquiries, which were ſo diligently proſecuted in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, as to the beſt means of relieving his ſubjects from the preſſure of the preſent high price of proviſions; and of preventing, as far as it could be done by human foreſight, the recurrence of ſimilar difficulties: and he aſſured them of his diſpoſition to embrace the earlieſt opportunity of terminating the preſent conteſt with ſecurity and honour.—In the houſe of lords, the addreſs was moved by

The duke of Montroſe. In this circumſtance, at the commencement of the important æra noticed in the ſpeech from the throne, there was much propriety, as the family of Montroſe was highly inſtrumental in promoting the union between England and Scotland, which has proved ſo fortunate for both kingdoms.* The union between Britain and Ireland, the firſt topic touched on in the ſpeech from the throne, in the judgement of the noble duke, reflected the higheſt honour on both countries. It was of the greateſt importance to the general intereſts of the empire; and would tend to promote the wealth and proſperity of Ireland, in a greater proportion than that of Britain. It would augment and conſolidate the ſtrength and reſources of the empire, and cement and connect more cloſely the intereſts and affections of both countries. The anticipation of theſe advantages it was reaſonable to form from an example within our own boſom. Scotland, notwithſtanding the aſſertions and prophecies of the advocates againſt the union, had ſoon attained to a degree of ſtrength and wealth very little expected even by her warmeſt friends. Thoſe who oppoſed it had conceived, that the rights of Scotland would be ſacrificed to thoſe of England. The Engliſh, however, to their immortal honour, inſtead of taking any unfair advantage from the union, acquitted themſelves with that friendſhip and generoſity, for which they had always been diſtinguiſhed. Inſtead of circumſcribing the commerce of the Scots, they cheriſhed their ſpirit of enterpriſe, by the moſt liberal ſubſcriptions for the improvement of their fiſheries, and the improvement of their agriculture and their manufactures. As to the northern confederacy, the next object of attention in the ſpeech from the throne, there was no cauſe for the gloom and deſpondency with which many worthy individuals were now afflicted. Our courage and capacity were univerſally acknowledged. Activity and perſeverance would crown our laudable efforts with the deſired ſucceſs. We were ſtrong in energies, and ſtrong in the juſtice of our cauſe. This laſt poſition the duke confirmed by reaſon, the authority of civilians, and the acknowledgment and practice of all maritime powers. On the ſubject of the high price of proviſions, he ſaid, we might expect much ſalutary aid from

* For a full and intereſting account of the end of the 17th, and beginning of the 18th century, and particularly the characters, intereſts, and political views and conduct of the leading families in Scotland, at the time of the union, *vide* Cunningham's Hiſtory of Great Britain.

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foreign ſources. There were alſo conſiderable tracts of land, of little or no utility, which the legiſlature might render highly beneficial to the community. The bent of his own mind was greatly in favour of a general enclofure bill, and the cultivation of the fen lands. The addreſs, correſponding to his majeſty's ſpeech, being moved by his grace, was ſeconded by lord Lucan, who rejoiced, that, at a moment when the courſe of events required all our exertion, we had thus ſecured the co-operation of our ſiſter kingdom.

The earl of Fitzwilliam lamented that the courſe of events had made ſo momentous a change in the aſpect of Europe, and the affairs of this kingdom. He had deeply felt the conſequences of the ſpirit that had broken out in France, and the deſtruction to which it led. The people of France had been called on to rally round the ſtandard of order, and to reinſtate the ancient family of their kings. The nations of Europe had felt it to be their juſt and wiſe policy to join this cauſe. No man would go further than himſelf, even yet, in combating for the cauſe; but he muſt own the thing was hopeleſs. His hopes had been diſappointed. The anarchy, however, to a great degree, was gone. France was now, in fact, eſtabliſhed into a monarchy, under republican forms, and under a new ruler. It did not depend on the opinion of an individual, and, he feared, it no longer depended on the power and energies of the nation, to withſtand the organization of the new order of things in France. The die was caſt: he muſt ſubmit. But, he could not think it poſſible for that houſe, conſiſtently with their duty, to omit an inquiry into the cauſes of the failure of our efforts, when ſuch large and almoſt unbounded powers had been intruſted to miniſters, and when they had all Europe in friendſhip with them in the common cauſe; and why, inſtead of ſucceeding in this great object, they had all at once plunged us into a conteſt with our new allies. As to the union, he lamented that he could not this day riſe to join in an unanimous vote of thanks to his majeſty for his moſt gracious ſpeech from the throne, on the occaſion of that event, on which his ideas were ſufficiently known. As the event was now paſt, he would exert himſelf to ſuppreſs all the emotions which he felt, and ſincerely wiſhed that the very ſanguine expectations of the noble duke might be fulfilled. He could not, however, withhold his aſtoniſhment, that, at a criſis ſo awful, when we were about to be plunged into a new war, his majeſty's miniſters, inſtead of giving information to the houſe, had called on them for new confidence and new ſupport. The war, into which we were now to be plunged, was a war of our own ſeeking, as far as Sweden and Denmark were concerned. We had it in our power to ſuſpend the diſcuſſion of the queſtion diſpoſed of in the neutral code; for it was ſuſpended, without any evil conſequences, in 1780, when, ſurely, this country was not in the very difficult ſituation in which ſhe ſtood at preſent. In concluſion, lord Fitzwilliam, declaring that he could not give his ſupport to men who had proved themſelves ſo unfit for the ſituations they filled, moved, as an amendment to the addreſs, the following addition: "And that this houſe will proceed with all poſſible diſpatch to make ſuch inquiries into the

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the general ſtate of the nation, but more eſpecially into the conduct of the war, and into our relations with foreign powers, as ſhall enable us to offer to his majeſty ſuch advice as we may think moſt conducive to the honour of his crown, and the general intereſts of his people; and further, to aſſure his majeſty, that if, owing to any unjuſt and unreaſonable pretenſions on the part of the enemy, peace cannot be obtained on ſuch terms as are conſiſtent with ſecurity; if the repreſentations which his majeſty has directed to be made to the court of Peterſburgh, in conſequence of the outrages committed againſt the ſhips, property, and perſons of his ſubjects, have not received that reparation which the nature of the caſe requires; and, if the differences which appear unhappily to have ariſen between his majeſty and the other northern powers, are of a nature which preſſes for immediate deciſion; and the impoſſibility of any equitable adjuſtment, renders new and more extended wars inevitable, we will give his majeſty every ſupport which the means of the country can afford, in the juſt hope and confidence, that his majeſty's paternal care for the welfare of his people will induce him to take ſuch meaſures as ſhall prevent, henceforward, a calamitous waſte of their remaining ſtrength and reſources, either by improvident and ineffectual projects, or by general negligence and profuſion; and ſhall enſure a wiſe and vigorous adminiſtration of their affairs, under the unexampled difficulties under which they are now involved." The motion for this amendment was ſeconded by the earl of Suffolk, and ſupported by lord Darnley, the earl of Moira, and lord Holland. Lord Suffolk ſhewed, by the London Gazette, that, inſtead of 1000 men, ſtated elſewhere to have been loſt in Holland, there had been actually killed and wounded between 12 and 13.000 Britiſh and Ruſſians; and deſired to know from the noble ſecretary of ſtate, lord Grenville, why a return of the killed and wounded in the expedition to Holland had not been laid on the table? Lord Grenville replied, that the ſeſſion in which they had been ordered was now cloſed, and that a new order muſt be made for them. Lord Suffolk arraigned not only that, but all our late expeditions, as deficient in wiſdom, vigour, and promptitude, by which the ſkill and courage of our arms had been waſted, and our armies diſgraced. There were other grounds on which he ſhould think it his duty to call miniſters to account: the refuſal of miniſters to negotiate; the unfortunate letter of lord Grenville, which would have diſgraced a ſchool-boy; and the violation of the treaty for the evacuation of Egypt. Lord Darnley having obſerved that it was the maxim of the Romans,

*Parcere ſubjectis, et debellare ſuperbos,**

ſaid, that our miniſters had inverted this maxim; theirs was,

Parcere ſuperbis, et debellare ſubjectos.

Ruſſia had been permitted, in the firſt inſtance, to inſult us with impunity; but the moment a weaker power advanced a pretenſion, an ambaſſador was ſent to negotiate at the cannon's mouth.—Lord Moira

* To ſpare the humble, and humble the proud.

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thought that his majesty's ministers were highly culpable for not having properly applied the large military force that was on foot. No man, he said, was more ready to join in doing justice to the extraordinary merits of our fleets, officers, and sailors: but he trusted that gallantry and enterprise were not more the characteristic of our naval officers than of the military to which he belonged; though they had been placed, by the misconduct of ministry, in an invidious situation. That alone was a fit and necessary subject of inquiry, besides a number of other very important events in the management of the war. How came it, his lordship asked, that the war was commenced by this country in a confederacy with all the powers against France, and that we now found ourselves in the strange situation of having that very confederacy combined with France against us? What was become of Austria? How came it that Russia, our magnanimous ally, was now converted into our inveterate enemy? Lord Holland asserted, that the conduct of ministers to our different allies had been such as necessarily led to their defection one after another, and was the sole cause of the alarming combination against us.

The amendment was opposed, and the original motion for the address supported by the duke of Athol, lord Romney, the earl Spencer, lord Grenville, the earl of Mulgrave, and lord Eldon. Lord Spencer asked if the present was the proper time for withdrawing that confidence which had hitherto been reposed in his majesty's ministers, when the difficulties of their situation and of the country had increased? Was the commencement of the united parliament the proper moment to choose for such a measure? What were the motives urged for so doing? The failure of the last two years expeditions. He should be very happy to meet an inquiry on those heads, if it were not that, at the present crisis, it would produce worse effects than could be compensated by any advantage that he could see likely to be derived from it. As to a disposition on the part of goverment to peace, he deprecated an inquiry on this point as, in the event of a negotiation, it would be attended with disadvantages, and in the alternative of continuing the war, would produce no beneficial effects. Lord Grenville stated that his majesty, at the conclusion of the last session of parliament, had informed them that an embargo had been laid on the ships of his subjects in Russia, and his representations on the subject had failed of procuring redress. The house was not now called on to inquire what was the previous cause of the quarrel between England and Russia, because the latter was bound by previous treaty not to act in the manner in which she had acted with relation to British ships and merchandize, even in the event of hostilities with the two countries. The house was called on to say, whether it would maintain his majesty in his just rights? With respect to the coalition into which Denmark and Sweden had entered in 1780, the country was at that time in considerable difficulties. The government of this country professed a determination to abide by the practice settled by treaties with these powers: but all discussion of the principle of the neutral code was for a time suspended. It might, perhaps,

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haps, be asked, what would be the harm of now acquiescing in the demands of the northern confederacy? The harm would be this, that we should again have to discuss the point at a moment when we might be less able to do it with success than at present. The earl of Mulgrave, in reply to lord Moira, spoke of the opportunities afforded to the army of distinguishing themselves in our expeditions to the West Indies, and in the East, in the capture of Seringapatam. Lord Eldon, taking a review of the question, now agitated by the northern powers combined against this country, shewed, from the law of nations, that the right of searching neutral vessels originated in the rights of nature, and that no convention, or treaty, could permanently destroy that right. The decision that had been given in the case of the Swedish convoy, he said, was founded on the strictest principles of the law of nations: and that decision, was a decision, not for this country only, but for all nations in our circumstances. He expatiated on the importance of asserting this right, as the foundation of our commerce, our wealth, and the great bulwark of both our military and naval glory. Such were the principal arguments made use of by the speakers on the opposite side of the question. There were two lords, who without supporting the amendment, or positively opposing the original motion for an address, embraced the present opportunity of declaring their sentiments on the present critical state of affairs. These were the earl of Caernarvon, and the earl of Fife. When lord Caernarvon considered, that we were become the objects of resentment, not indeed justly so, of many nations, he thought himself justified in calling for an inquiry; not with a view to impede the exertions of ministers, but because he saw no reason for plunging into war without inquiry. He understood that, on former occasions, we had surrendered some of those rights for which we were now contending. He did not pretend to be versed on the subject: but if we had done so, it was clear, that what we had said to one favoured nation, was to be considered as having been said to every nation; because it shewed that such rights were not necessary to our safety. He concluded, by giving it as his opinion, that it would be more reasonable in the house to negative the address, and to confine itself to expressions of its loyalty, and of its determination to support his majesty in the exercise of its rights.—To the observation modestly introduced by the earl of Caernarvon, on rights renounced by special convention not being necessary to our safety, and therefore not such as to be asserted by war, lord Grenville replied, that he was astonished at hearing noble lords, speaking in opposition to great legal authority, after avowing their ignorance on the subject. It was the first time he ever heard it mentioned, that a special agreement with one power was a renunciation of a right as to other powers. Those who supposed this to be the case, might satisfy themselves by a reference to the instructions given by the American government to their ministers in France.—The earl of Fife was rather inclined to wish that a motion for inquiry should not now be made: but, if it should be brought forward, he must declare his

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his opinion in its favour. As the sentiments expressed on this occasion, by the earl of Fife, were the result of long, candid, and sensible observation, unwarped by factious prejudices, and unentangled with flourishes of rhetoric, and subtleties of dispute, we shall present our readers with his lordship's speech, short and pithy, in his own words:

"I have no desire to give offence to his majesty's ministers, nor to pay court to those who oppose them: nothing could be more improper at present than to debate, whether the war was just or unjust, necessary or not necessary; but I can most positively declare, that no war was ever worse conducted. My lords, I have read all the history of this country; I have seen and been intimate with all the different parties, from the death of Mr. Pelham to the present hour. In this horrid war our blood and treasure have been spent in the extravagant folly of secret expeditions; grievous and heavy taxes have been laid on the people, and wasted in expensive embassies, and subsidizing proud, treacherous, and useless foreign princes, who would have acted much better for themselves had you saved your money, and taken no concern with them. I do not condole with you on your present unfortunate situation in having no such friends; I only wish you had been in that situation in the beginning of this war. The noble lord who presides at the admiralty, in his speech, has with ability done justice to the navy: I sincerely wish our ill-spent money had been laid out on our fleets.

"All those, my lords, that ever heard me speak, or ever read a letter from me on the subject, will do me the justice to say, that my sentiments have all along been the same, and that this has hung upon my mind from the day the first battalion of the guards first marched from the parade for Holland. I lament the present scarcity; but, great as our demerits are, it comes not from the Almighty, but from the effects of this ill-conducted war, which I am ready to prove whenever this question is brought forward. What have we gained by our boasted conquests? If a proper regulation for commerce was made, I wish they were all sold, and the money arising laid out to pay the national debt, and to relieve the nation of those oppressive taxes which bear hard on the rich and poor, on their income, their industry, and, what is worse, their liberty; and till some of those are repealed, this nation cannot be called free."

On a division of the house, the amendment was rejected: 17 against 73. The address was then carried, without a division. Lord Walsingham was appointed chairman of committees. A new house of peers had been built on an enlarged, and otherwise improved, plan. A committee was appointed for the purpose of assigning to the peers, according to their respective ranks, their seats in the new house.

In the house of commons, on the same day, February 2, 1801, the address was moved by

Sir William Watkins Wynne, who following the topics touched on in his majesty's speech, congratulated the house on the happy consummation of the union between Great Britain and Ireland, and on the appearance of that happy disposition in the people, which was necessary to give due advantage to the.

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the agency of the measure, and to bring on, with all possible celerity, the full development of those happy consequences, which its authors reasonably expected from it. As to the renewed claim of maritime rights in neutral nations, he said, as if it were not enough to abandon the common cause of order, good government, and the balance of Europe, the emperor of Russia had, in wanton violation of a clear and solemn treaty, and in contempt of the generally received law of nations, confiscated the property which was confided to the honour and integrity of himself and his subjects, and had even dared to send a number of British seamen into confinement and distant exile in the remotest parts of his vast and half-desolate dominions. By such outrages, that house, and every individual in these united kingdoms, must be warmly excited to second his sovereign, and the executive government of his country, in opposing, repressing, avenging, and redressing, the wrongs which he had inflicted. How much better to meet the open enmity of the other northern powers, than to sacrifice, for the sake of their neutrality, acknowledged rights, for the loss of which, even their closest alliance could make no adequate compensation? The hostility of the powers of the north, by shutting up the ports of the Baltic against our shipping, and refusing us farther supplies of grain from that quarter, had thus, in part, interfered to hinder that diminution of the prices of bread and other provisions, which was actually to have been expected from the wise and beneficent measures of the last session of the British parliament, as well as from the uncommon mildness of the present season; yet the distresses of the poor had been considerably alleviated, and their alleviation had been greatly owing to the benevolent, cautious, and enlightened interposition of parliament. When he considered the strength and quantity of our shipping, the number, hardihood, and loyalty of our seamen, the victories which had perpetually crowned our naval exertions, the ports we possessed in all the seas,* the union and patriotic ardour of the whole people, the inferiority of the naval force of those powers who had leagued against us, the immense resources which our trade, manufactures, and agriculture, were still sufficient to furnish, and the probable dissension and weakness of an ill-assorted alliance, he was confident that the house would be unanimously disposed to offer their zealous support to his majesty's government, in whatever measures of government should be farther necessary, to bring these troubles to a happy termination. His majesty's gracious assurances of his earnest desire to bring about such a termination, whenever the temper of the enemy might permit, was entitled to their perfect confidence, and their warmest thanks. Sir Watkin concluded with a motion for an address suitable to the speech from the throne. That motion was seconded, and ably supported, on much the same grounds, by

Mr. Cornwallis, who, in conclusion, expressed his confidence, that, whatever might be said of the previous state of the war, the house could not but unanimously agree as

* Sir Watkin should have excepted the Baltic.

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to the neceſſity of ſupporting his majeſty againſt the hoſtilities of the powers of the north, the ſtrength of our navy, the activity of our domeſtic induſtry, and the proſperity of our trade.

Mr. Grey made a diſtinction between the differences that had ariſen between this country and Sweden and Denmark, and of thoſe that had ariſen between this country and Ruſſia. Though he could not acquit the emperor of Ruſſia of the charges of violence and injuſtice, it did not follow that miniſters were free from blame. The emperor accuſed them of having violated a convention, by which, as a reward for his co-operation againſt France, he was to have received the iſland of Malta. Did ſuch a convention actually exiſt? The charge, though he was diſpoſed to believe it to be groundleſs, yet furniſhed ground of inquiry. He could not help thinking, that, in the confederacy, ſome reciprocal ſtipulations of mutual benefit might have exiſted. As to the nature of the diſpute between this country and the other northern powers, Denmark and Sweden, and Pruſſia too, though this power was not included in the ſpeech from the throne, he not only expreſſed his doubts of the juſtice of our claim, with reſpect to neutral veſſels, but alſo its importance. With regard to the union with Ireland, his ſentiments remained unaltered. He was ſtill perſuaded, that the beſt way of conſolidating a ſincere and cordial connexion with that country, was an adherence to the principle of the ſettlement of 1782. Mr. Grey concluded a long ſpeech, in which he went over all, and combated moſt of the ſentiments expreſſed in the addreſs, by moving an amendment to the ſame effect and in the ſame words, with that moved by lord Fitzwilliam in the houſe of peers. Mr. Grey's motion was ſeconded by Mr. Whitbread, and ſupported by Dr. Lawrence, Mr. Tierney, and Mr. Sheridan.

Dr. Lawrence ſaid, that the preſent queſtion was not ſo much whether the practice of the belligerent powers to ſearch neutral bottoms for enemy's property was founded in right, as whether it was conſiſtent with ſound policy in the Britiſh government, circumſtanced as England was, to inſiſt on the right at this period. He profeſſed himſelf decidedly againſt the raſhneſs of miniſters on the preſent occaſion — Certainly, if the affairs of the nation could be improved, or the dangers which ſurrounded it be removed by a ſplendid ſpeech, Mr. Pitt was completely competent to it. In this inſtance, however, either he ſhould ſatisfy the houſe as to the neceſſity of increaſing their dangers, or the houſe ſhould refuſe to ſanction his proceedings. It was the policy of the military deſpot, who now wielded the power of France, to conciliate the northern powers. Should this confederation be driven to unite with him, how dangerous would the ſtate of this country become! "Let us forbear for the preſent. In other times, leſs critical, forbearance has been the policy. It was the policy of the magnanimous queen Elizabeth, who claimed and exerciſed the right of ſearching neutral veſſels, of Charles II. and of the adminiſtration of 1780. The northern powers deny that there is any thing in the convention, recently ſigned at Peterſburgh, contrary to exiſting treaties with England.

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land. What was the nature of the convention? It embraced three points: 1ſt. Free bottoms making free goods: 2d. The permiſſion to ſearch and detain contraband goods: 3d. The nature of blockade. On the two firſt points various deciſions had been pronounced, highly calculated to provoke and irritate the northern powers, particularly ſome within the laſt three years, in the Weſt Indies, which could not be vindicated. It was a little too much, on the mere ſignature of a convention for common protection, at once to commence hoſtilities againſt nations much injured by this country. Let us look to ourſelves for that conduct which we demand from others.—We complained of the violent arreſt of our veſſels by Ruſſia, and committed an act as violent and unjuſtifiable towards Sweden and Denmark. Ruſſia, at the commencement of the war, reſiſted any commerce whatever with France, by any neutral ſtate. We interfered, and moderated her pretenſions. Let the ſame ſpirit of moderation reſtrain the raſhneſs of miniſters now." Such was the reaſoning of Dr. Lawrence, diſpaſſionate, moderate, and candid.—Mr. Tierney's reaſoning on the ſame ground, was tinctured with a degree of animoſity, and perſonal alluſion and reflection.—The country, he ſaid, in concluſion of an animated ſpeech, looked up to his majeſty's miniſters for inquiry; but they were obſtinately unwilling to ſatisfy its inquiries, and utterly incapable of procuring an honourable peace. He aſked the houſe to name the part in Europe that reſpected them, or the enemy that feared them? The only rational motive for carrying on the war longer was to procure a peace. Was it then to be accounted ſtrange that he ſhould aſk, that the millions raiſed to defray its expenſes, ſhould be put in the hands of a perſon who knew how to expend them to advantage?—Mr. Sheridan, in alluſion to the tranquillity and apparent ſatisfaction of the people, noticed, or perhaps we ſhould ſay alleged, by the mover and ſeconder of the addreſs, ſaid, "Sir, I am more alarmed at this unnatural quiet, than I ſhould be, if I heard complaints accompanied with even ſome tendency to diſorder. You have gagged the people, and bound them hand and foot, and then you ſay, look how quiet they are. Is there any place but this, where a man may ſpeak his ſentiments freely? But, the queſtion is put, is there any man capable of the meanneſs of making ſubmiſſions to France? Yes, ſir, his majeſty's miniſters, for they have done it. We have heard it aſked, whether we could make peace with regicides, and whether a man could be found that would be the bearer of ſuch a propoſal? Sir, miniſters have done it: they have done it three times, after as lofty boaſts as any that have been made for them this day."

The amendment was oppoſed, and the original motion for an addreſs, ſupported by Mr. Pitt, the ſolicitor-general, and Mr. Dundas. Mr. Pitt obſerved, that there was but one new queſtion before the houſe, that reſpecting our differences with the northern powers. Mr. Pitt recapitulated the reaſoning of Mr. Grey on this ſubject. Though the honourable gentleman, he ſaid, ſeemed diſpoſed to entertain doubts on points, on which there was hardly any other man, he believed, to be found in this country, on which no

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other man could hesitate for a moment, yet there were other points on which his mind appeared to be free from doubt, and his opinion completely decided. If, after a full discussion of this subject, it should appear that the claim which this country had made, was founded on the clearest and most indisputable justice; if it should be proved that our greatness, nay, our very existence as a nation, depended on our possessing and exercising the right of searching neutral vessels, the honourable gentleman was prepared seriously to declare in that house, that such were the circumstances in which we stood, that we ought, publicly and explicitly, to state to the world, that we were unequal to the contest. This, said Mr. Pitt, is the conduct which Mr. Grey advises us to pursue at once, without determining, without investigating, whether it be compatible with our safety. He really found much difficulty in reconciling this language to that sort of spirit, which the honourable gentleman had talked of in another part of his speech, in which he said, that he was far from wishing to make the country despond.—Mr. Grey here said, that he had been misunderstood.—Mr. Pitt replied, that he was stating what the honourable gentleman had said, and that he should be happy to find that he did not mean what he said. Mr. Pitt, after other strictures on the speech of Mr. Grey, proceeded. "I believe," said he, "I may safely assert, that it never occurred to any one member of this house to increase the difficulties of this country, by starting a doubt on the question of right; and it will be a most singular circumstance, that the honourable gentleman and his friends should only have begun to doubt where our enemies were ready to begin the combat." There were two ways, Mr. Pitt observed, in which the present subject was to be considered. The first was, what had been the general law of nations thereon, independent of any particular treaties; the second, how far it was affected by any precise treaties with the particular powers who were the objects of the present dispute. With respect to the law of nations, the principle on which we were now acting, had been universally admitted and acted upon, except in cases where it had been restrained and modified by particular treaties between different states. And here, he observed, that the honourable gentleman had fallen into the same error which constituted the great fallacy in the reasoning of the advocates for the northern powers, namely, that every exception from the general law by a particular treaty, proves the law to be as it is stated in that particular treaty; whereas, the very circumstance of making an exception by treaty, proves what the general law of nations would be, if no particular treaty were made to modify or alter it. With regard to particular treaties with particular powers, Mr. Pitt shewed, that, with every one of the three northern powers, with whom we were at present in dispute, independently of the law of nations, of our uniform practice, and of the opinions of our courts, we had the strict letter of engagements whereby they were bound to us; and that their present conduct to us was as much a violation of positive treaties with us, as it was of the law of nations. So much for the question of right, on which Mr. Grey entertained doubts. Mr. Pitt came now to the question of expedience, concerning which,

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which, he ſeemed to be in no doubt. This queſtion, he ſaid, was, whether we were to permit the navy of our enemy to be ſupplied and recruited? whether we were to ſuffer blockaded forts to be furniſhed with ſtores and proviſions? whether we were to ſuffer neutral nations, by hoiſting a flag on a ſloop or a fiſhing-boat, to convey the treaſures of South America to Spain, or the naval ſtores of the Baltic to Breſt or Toulon? Were theſe the propoſitions that gentlemen meant to contend for? They talked of the deſtruction of the naval power of France; but could it really be believed, that her marine would have been decreaſed to the degree that it now was reduced, if, during the whole of the war, the principle now contended for had not been acted on? If her commerce had not been deſtroyed, if the fraudulent ſyſtem of neutrals had not been prevented, would not her navy have been in a very different ſituation from that in which it now was?

As to what had been ſaid on other topics, of the cenſures which ought to be caſt on miniſters for the counſel they *had any ſhare in giving* for the proſecution of the war, he had the conſolation of knowing what theſe were likely to be, from a recollection of what they had repeatedly been. They would moſt probably be put in the ſame way, and would admit of being anſwered in the ſame way as they had already been anſwered, as often as they had been brought forward.

The Solicitor-general obſerved, that the honourable mover of the amendment had told the houſe that they were in a ſituation of difficulty and danger, which required vigour, exertion, and promptitude; yet, that he propoſed doubt, heſitation, and inquiry. He was really amazed, when he reflected on the origin and progreſs of thoſe doubts, which now ſeemed to exiſt, reſpecting the queſtion in diſpute between this country and the nations of the north. Before the confederacy recently concluded between Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, was actually executed, no man in that houſe, he was fully certain, had the ſubject been brought into diſcuſſion, would have uttered a doubt upon it. The doubts of Mr. Grey, he apprehended, were not the effect of inveſtigation or calm inquiry. They were offered merely as an argument againſt the addreſs, and ſuggeſted by his fears; a ſpecies of reaſoning that was calculated to produce indeciſion, to throw a damp on the ſpirit of the country, and to encourage the hopes of our enemies — The heſitation he recommended, would be a victory to the coaleſced powers, as it would give them time and opportunity to collect and invigorate the means neceſſary to maintain their unjuſt and extraordinary pretenſions. His learned friend (Dr. Lawrence) ſeemed to him to have much miſtaken the tenor and purport of the addreſs. We muſt not, ſaid the learned doctor, pledge ourſelves to ſupport his majeſty in a ſyſtem of warfare, into which there is, perhaps, no abſolute neceſſity to enter; but the addreſs required no ſuch pledge: it merely ſtated the readineſs of the houſe to co-operate with his majeſty in defending our claims, ſhould the northern powers perſiſt in their plans of aggreſſion. His honourable friend would not recommend a puſillanimous ſurrender of a right, ſo eſſential to our exiſtence as a maritime ſtate, from any conſideration of circumſtances.

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Never had a caſe occurred, in which, by act or treaty, we had abandoned the claim of ſearching neutral bottoms for enemies property. By the exiſting treaties between this country and the ſtates of Denmark and Sweden, it would be fraud in them to convey enemies goods; but the convention which Denmark avowed to have ſigned, aſſerted that right: this, therefore, was a departure from treaty, and an act of hoſtility. The convention allowed, indeed, the right of ſearch, and confiſcation of what was called contraband goods, though the advocates of that convention contended againſt any ſearch whatever; but the ſolicitor-general contended, that if we ſhould conſent to any modification of our rights, the next ſtep of the powers engaged in that convention, in obedience to the advice of their philoſophical advocates, would be to inſiſt, that all kinds of property on board merchant-ſhips, ſhould be protected from detention, and free from ſearch. The whole of that pretenſion would be moſt aſſuredly advanced, for the preſent diſtinction of contraband was artificial. There was no ſuch diſtinction, correctly ſpeaking. All articles deſigned for, and conducive to, the advantage of our enemy, were inadmiſſible to be freely conveyed, and therefore contraband. If prepoſterous diſtinctions between one kind of goods and another were once admitted, the next ſtep would be, that we could not take our enemies goods. It would be contended, that the intercourſe of merchants ought not, on any account, to be interrupted. "Againſt whom, then," ſaid the ſolicitor, "are we to make war? Why, againſt a metaphyſical being called the ſtate, as if the ſtate were any thing but the aggregate of the people." We attack their property, in order to reduce the reſources of the ſtate, which derives from them all its vigour. And if it was allowed that we have a right to capture the enemy's property at all, why ſhould that right be done away, and the property be protected, becauſe it was encloſed in a piece of wood? On the interpretation of that principle, Grotius did not conceive it poſſible that there ſhould ariſe any doubt. Dr. Lawrence had ſaid, that, if the northern powers had entered into a confederacy againſt England, they had received much provocation. If ſuch caſes of grievance had been introduced into the inferior courts, the parties could have been redreſſed by an appeal to the proper tribunal. They had the ſecurity of the Britiſh character for a ſtrictly upright and fair deciſion; but, whatever that deciſion might have been, no nation would be juſtified in arming, in conſequence of the decree of an admiralty court, without previous application to the ſtate by whom that court was appointed. As to the policy of our miniſtry in not directly reſiſting, but for a time giving way to the combination of 1780, we now felt the ill effects of that policy. A ſimilar compromiſe of our rights would, perhaps, expoſe us to ſome ſtill greater evil on a future day. Had the pretenſion of the armed neutrality been reſiſted then, we ſhould not now be diſturbed by the repetition of it; but, he admitted, that the circumſtances of the country in 1780 were different from what they are now.

With regard to the exemption of convoys, he conſidered this as an abſurdity. The faith of a ſtate might be pledged that no enemy's goods were

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were on board; but that could not be pledged. When a ſtate granted paſſports, it could only take the affidavits of the parties. The captor, in his ſearch, might find many articles not ſpecified in thoſe affidavits. The papers the captain muſt have on board, deſcribing the goods on board, and the deſtination of the ſhip, might enable the captor to come at particulars, ſeldom communicated to the ſtate which granted the paſſports, therefore a convoy ought to be no protection. As to plunging into war precipitately, deprecated by his learned friend, adminiſtration had not been forward to take hoſtile meaſures, not until an application to the northern courts had produced an explicit avowal of their purpoſes. So ſoon as we underſtood that a convention was ſigned, which we had every reaſon to think hoſtile to our rights and intereſts, we had put ourſelves in a poſture to be prepared againſt the conſequences—conſequences which were pointed at our maritime ſuperiority and exiſtence (long the favourite and avowed object of French ambition), and, of courſe, againſt our national exiſtence: againſt ſuch conſequences we had put ourſelves in a poſture to be prepared. We were only guarding ourſelves againſt the determinations we had obſerved. The pretenſions of the northern confederacy might not be puſhed to the extent apprehended; if ſo, hoſtilities would not enſue: at all events, meaſures ought to be taken for ſecurity.

The ſolicitor-general having thus eſtabliſhed the juſtice of our claims, and the neceſſity of aſſerting and maintaining them, thought it neceſſary, before he ſat down, to make ſome obſervations on the general tone and tendency of the ſpeech, by which the amendment was introduced. Among other ſtrictures, he aſked, whether we ought, deliberately, to lay plans for fruſtrating our own hopes? To labour to diſhearten and diſunite thoſe on whoſe union and courage our ſafety wholly depended? What could gentlemen propoſe or promiſe to themſelves, by holding out to view the moſt gloomy and exaggerated pictures of our ſituation? What could be their aim in this ſtrange diſplay and application of their eloquence? Could the reputation of being thought clever outweigh all regard to their ſtake in the ſtate? Suppoſing that they ſhould completely ſucceed in perſuading the people to diſtruſt their government, their ſtrength, and their reſources, and to admire and dread the enemy with whom we had to contend, what advance would they have made towards bettering our condition, towards increaſing our ſtrength, and improving our ſecurity? Were gentlemen afraid that we ſhould be led, by a generous enthuſiaſm, to exert ourſelves in the public cauſe, beyond what might be perfectly conſiſtent with our individual intereſts? Was that ſo much the bent and temper of mankind, that prudent philoſophers thought it neceſſary to interpoſe their ſalutary admonitions, leſt a diſintereſted public ſpirit ſhould acquire too powerful an aſcendant? Was it for that purpoſe that honourable gentlemen thought themſelves called upon, in policy and in prudence, to endeavour to draw off the attention of a large portion of the people from the dangers that threatened their country, to the evils that threatened themſelves? "I do not ſee," ſaid the ſolicitor, "how, by dipicting thoſe

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evils in the gloomieſt colours, we, in any way, contribute to their alleviation. I wiſh to God that all the upper claſſes of life would diſplay the ſame ſober fortitude that has characterized the lower orders of the community. They have real and ſerious evils to ſtruggle with and to endure. There are thoſe who are obliged to taſk their imaginations for ſubjects of complaint, which, if they would confeſs the honeſt truth, never broke in on one moment of their repoſe, or robbed them of one moment of their enjoyments. Yet, not contented with giving vent to their own mock lamentations, they are angry that thoſe who really ſuffered ſhould ſhew any degree of patience under their ſufferings, and ſhould not be ready to break out into inſurrection againſt that government which was exerting its utmoſt endeavours for their relief."—The important queſtion of the principle of the northern confederacy, the great and leading queſtion in the counſels and conduct of nations at this time, was agitated in this ſeſſion, on ſeveral occaſions, again and again. It was diſcuſſed with ſo much preciſion, perſpicuity, ſolidity, and good ſenſe, by Mr. Grant, on the motion for an amendment to the addreſs, that we have judged it proper to give more room to his reaſoning, than it is permitted by our limits to give to moſt ſpeeches in parliament, becauſe it will prevent the neceſſity of our entering again into the ſubſequent debates on that ſubject. On a diviſion of the houſe, the amendment was rejected by 245 againſt 63. The original motion for an addreſs was carried without a diviſion, and having been carried through the uſual ſtages of bills and reſolutions, was preſented to his majeſty on the 4th of February.

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CHAP. IV.

Progreſs of the War in Germany and Italy—and Termination.—The French under Moreau paſs the Inn—and the Salza.—Paſſage of the Rhetian Alps by a Diviſion of the French Army of the Griſons under General Macdonald.—Operations of the Gallo-Batavian Army under General Augereau.—Poſition of the Auſtrian Army after the French had croſſed the Inn and the Salza.—The Command of the Auſtrian Army taken by the Archduke Charles.—The French within fifty Miles of Vienna—Conſternation of the Imperaliſts.—Armiſtice of Steyer.—Affairs of Italy.—Diſputes about the Poleſino.—Convention of Caſtiglione.—French Invaſion of Tuſcany.—Paſſage of the Mincio by the French—and of the Adige.—Armiſtice of Treviſo.

THAT event which, to the eye of a Briton, appeared the moſt prominent at this time, in the ſhifting ſcene of European politics and war, and which, of all that paſſed without the Britiſh empire, was noticed firſt in his majeſty's ſpeech from the throne, we ſhould now proceed to relate, if it were not neceſſary, in the firſt place, to conclude our narrative of the great affairs of 1800, in the ſouth of Europe: by which the formation and the progreſs of the northern confederacy againſt the maritime claims of Britain were ſo much influenced.

In order to improve the advantage gained by the great victory at Hohenlinden, on the 3d of December, 1800, general Moreau, keeping his face towards the capital of the Auſtrian dominions, puſhed on with the greateſt rapidity to Saltzburgh: by the occupancy of which poſt, he would double in the Tyrol, cut off from the main army of the imperialiſts in Germany the corps employed in the valley of the Inn, from Koſteen, as far as the Engadine, menace the direct roads from Vienna to Italy, and, with the co-operation of the army under general Brune, if it ſhould be victorious, of which no doubt was entertained, on the Adige and the Mincio, drive the Auſtrians into Hungary. In his route to Saltzburgh it was neceſſary to paſs two rivers; which enabled the retreating Auſtrians to retard his march, and, in ſome degree, to weaken his force, by a vigorous reſiſtance. Theſe were the Inn and the Salza. The Inn, riſing in the country of the Griſons, and paſſing through Tyrol and Bavaria, falls into the Danube near Paſſaw. The bed of this river is deep, its current rapid, and its right bank, from the Alps to its junction with the Danube, fortified by a chain of rocks. It was conſidered by the marſhal Turenne as one of the ſtrongeſt military barriers in Europe. The Salza, though neither ſo large nor quite ſo rapid as the

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the Inn, is yet a river of conſiderable magnitude. Saltzburgh is ſituated on its right bank, about 140 miles weſt by ſouth-weſt of Vienna. The French paſſed both theſe rivers in different places. Obſtacles which, to military ſkill, would have appeared to be almoſt inſurmountable, were overcome, without any obſtinate reſiſtance, on the part of the panic-ſtruck Auſtrians, by troops as confident of ſucceſs as they were accuſtomed to conquer. The Inn was croſſed, December 9, at Nieupeurein, between Roſenheim and Kuffſtein, at Waſſerburg, and at Muhldorf: the Salza between Saltzburgh and Lauffen. On the intermediate ground between Lauffen and Saltzburgh, the greateſt part of the Auſtrian army, on the 12th of December, was concentrated. A diviſion under general Lecourbe was ordered to advance on the right bank of the Saal, and another under general Decaen by Lauffen, while a corps of reſerve, under the generals Richepanſe and Grouchy, was ready to ſupport either Lecourbe or Decaen, as ſhould be neceſſary. On the 13th of December, general Lecourbe paſſed the Saal, without much reſiſtance, and made himſelf maſter of the village of Waal. General Decaen, having arrived in the neighbourhood of Lauffen, found the bridge there broken down, and the enemy defending the heights which command it. Three chaſſeurs threw themſelves into the Salza, in ſpite of the extreme cold, and ſwam over for ſome boats on the oppoſite ſide, while ſome more advanced, keeping up a fire of muſquetry, along the ruins of the bridge. About 80 men, having paſſed the river in the boats that had been collected, were ſufficient to repulſe a party of Auſtrians on the right bank, and to make 200 priſoners; ſuch is the aſtoniſhing influence of a ſeries of ſucceſſes, over a ſeries of defeats! The commander-in-chief ordered general Grenier to advance with his two diviſions to Lauffen, and the ſame orders were given to generals Grouchy and Richepanſe. He ordered the pontoons to be carried to the ſame point, and a new bridge to be thrown over, while that which had been broken down by the enemy ſhould be repaired. Theſe operations took place in the night. Five hundred men paſſed over to the right bank of the river; and general Lecourbe who commanded them was continuing his route, when, in the morning of the 14th, the Auſtrians appeared in great force, with an intention to oppoſe it. General Lecourbe, ſenſible of his great inferiority in numbers, fell back, and contented himſelf with defending the road, and maintaining poſſeſſion of the village of Waal. A ſharp action took place: but Lecourbe maintained his poſition till two o'clock; when general Decaen, who had paſſed the river with his whole diviſion, began to advance, keeping up a terrible fire of artillery on all that oppoſed him. This movement, which operated as a diverſion in favour of general Lecourbe, likewiſe favoured the paſſage of the diviſion under Richepanſe, which now began to form on the right bank. In the night between the 14th and 15th, the Auſtrians effected their retreat with precipitation, and the French entered Saltzburgh at eight o'clock in the morning. On the ſame day general Richepanſe, with the left diviſion of the French army purſued the imperaliſts along the road to Linta, and entered

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entered Newmark, the laſt poſt in Bavaria, on the frontier of the hereditary ſtates of the emperor. The archduke John, whoſe head-quarters were by this time removed to Braunau, on the lower Inn, was, by this manœuvre, cut off from all communication with the Auſtrian commander, general Mollitor, in the Tyrol, who had a force about 25,000 ſtrong, but who had no communication except with general Bellegarde. The Tyrol was now threatened on the north ſide by a diviſion of the French army under Lecourbe, on the weſt by another under Mollitor, and on the ſouth-weſt by Macdonald.

General Macdonald, commander-in-chief of the French army of the Griſons, at the head of a column, had paſſed the Rhetian Alps, by the defiles of the Splugen, and through Chiavenna, in the firſt weeks of December, in order to ſupport the left wing of the Italian army, which was under the command of general Brune. The difficulties and dangers of croſſing the mountains would have interrupted the paſſage at different times, had it not been for the intrepid perſeverance of the general. He led in perſon the pioneers to tracts of the road, near the ſummit of the Splugen, which were filled up and totally defaced by the driſted ſnow. He himſelf ſet the example of working to open a path, on the 5th of December, about two leagues from the village of Splugen, which was effected. This foremoſt party had not advanced far when the path was again covered, and his grenadiers ſinking in the ſnow, began to believe that it was impoſſible to proceed farther; for even all the poles that had been ſet up for marks were covered with ſnow, and ſnow was ſtill falling. But the general, at the head of the pioneers, ſounded himſelf the road, and, animating all who were near him by his voice and example, conducted the troops through all the dangers of the Splugen, and, at laſt, on the 11th of December, gained the valley of the Adda, in the Valtelline, which opened a communication with general Brune. He was, at the ſame time, maſter of both banks of the upper Inn, and of the upper Engadine;* and thus communications were eſtabliſhed among all theſe diviſions.

In the mean time, the Gallo-Batavian army, under Augereau, whoſe right wing was to protect and co-operate with the left of Moreau's, gained ſome important advantages over the Auſtrians in Franconia. On the rupture of the armiſtice, the baron d'Albini, who commanded the troops of Mayence, ſtationed at Aſchaffenburg, attacked, November 23, the Batavian infantry, which guarded the head of the bridge of Aſchaffenburg; but, after three vigorous aſſaults, were driven back into the town. The Gallo-Batavian army, quitting its cantonments on the Nidda, the lower Main, and the Tobre, marched on to Wurtzburg and Swinfurth, where the imperialiſts had a corps of three or four thouſand men. The town of Wurtzburg was inveſted by the Batavian diviſion, under lieutenant-general Dumonceau, on the 28th. General Dumonceau, with a part

* The Engadine, or, as it is called by the natives, and in the neighbouring ſtates, Enzadina, is a country of the Griſons, extending along the banks of the river Inn, from its ſource to the Tyroleſe, and is divided into the upper and the lower Engadine.

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of the diviſion, was left to carry on the ſiege of the citadel. Augereau, having received intelligence from general Moreau, that the Auſtrians had aſſembled, to the number of 12 or 13,000, before Bamberg, at Burg-Eberach, came to a determination, with two diviſions of his army, to give them battle, and drive them beyond the Rednitz. They occupied, beſides the village, the two firſt heights that command Burg-Eberach. They were driven from the village and the firſt height, but made a reſolute ſtand on the ſecond. After the moſt obſtinate reſiſtance, they were forced alſo to yield this; but they retreated in good order. General Duheſme, on the 3d of December, took poſſeſſion of Bamberg. The main army took a poſt behind the Rednitz, to cover the ſiege of the citadel of Wurtzburg. General Barbou was ordered to march different parties towards Nuremberg. Augereau, informed of the ſucceſs of the army of the Rhine, withdrawing his right wing from the Rednitz, took poſſeſſion of Furchem and Nuremberg, with an intention to wait there for farther advices from Moreau. The Gallo-Batavian army, ſtationed partly before Wurtzburg, and partly at Nuremberg and Furchem, had, on its left, d'Albini with 2000 men, in front the corps of Simbſchen, 12,000 ſtrong, and, in the ſame direction, a body of 15,000, under Klenau, poſted towards Newmarck, and in Ratiſbon. It was the object of the Auſtrians to cut off the communication between Augereau and Moreau, and, if poſſible, to turn the left of Moreau's army. From the 3d to the 17th, nothing paſſed but ſkirmiſhing between outpoſts; but, on the 18th, a bloody battle was fought between Nuremberg and Lauff. It laſted from nine o'clock in the morning till the cloſe of the day. General Klenau headed an attack on the left of the Gallo-Batavians, commanded by general Barbou, and general Simbſchen an attack on the left, under the orders of general Duheſme. The engagement was as fierce on both ſides, as it was long continued. The aſſailants were forced to fall back; but the loſs on both ſides was ſuppoſed to be nearly equal. A hundred waggons were loaded with dead and wounded Auſtrians.

In this ſituation of affairs, the Auſtrian army of the Danube moved from Braunau, and, on the 16th of December took an advantageous poſition behind the Traun. Its head-quarters were eſtabliſhed at Straſwalden, from whence they were transferred, on the 17th, to Skwanſtadt, where the chief command of the army was taken by the archduke Charles, with full powers, which he had been long refuſed. That prince immediately ordered defenſive diſpoſitions; but, before he could finiſh them, the centre of the French army of the Rhine arrived at the Traun in five diviſions, commanded ſeverally by Legrand, Grandjeau, Richepanſe, and Grouchy. A bloody engagement took place on the 18th, between the two armies, and ſoon became general. Richepanſe, with the advanced guard, attacked the rear of the imperialiſts, in a ſtrong poſition near Valbruk, and defeated them. The loſs of the Auſtrians, in killed and wounded, was computed to be from 3 to 500; and 1000 were taken priſoners, 600 of which number was cavalry, with general Lopez their commander. The Auſtrians, on the 19th, interrupted their retreat, and endeavoured

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vored to make a ſtand on the heights of Lambach; but Richepanſe again defeated their rear guard, drove them into the defiles of Lambach with great loſs, and the imperial army retreated to Lintz, within ninety-two miles of Vienna. The French continued to advance, and, on the 20th, fixed their head-quarters at Wells. Moreau now formed his army into three columns, of which the right, under Lecourbe, made for the mountains ſouth of Steyer on the Ens; the centre, commaded by Moreau himſelf, ſet out for Steyer; and the left, under Grenier, which had marched along the ſouth banks of the Danube, and forced the Auſtrians to retreat from Lintz acroſs the river, proceeded on the high road from Lintz towards Vienna. On the 24th, Richepanſe, with the advanced guard of the centre column, entered Steyer, in which he found 17 pieces of cannon, and made 4000 priſoners. On the 25th, the French began to proceed onward to the next river, the Erlaph, and the Auſtrians to retire behind the Traſen, the laſt river of any note within fifty miles of Vienna. This great city was ſtruck with conſternation and terror; the greater in loyal minds, that it was eaſily perceived by no means to be general. As the French advanced, the countenances of the diſaffected to government, who were neither few in number, nor yet altogether of the lower claſſes, brightened up with joy. They held frequent converſations with one another. They were at little pains to conceal their ſentiments; and, in ſhort, it was ſuppoſed, that had the French come to Vienna, they would have been joined by numbers of the inhabitants: ſuch was the general averſion to the war, and ſuch the progreſs of French intrigues and principles. The imperial family prepared to ſet out for Offen, eſcorted by a party of the lifeguards. The gallery of paintings, with the imperial treaſury, other valuable articles, and the city treaſury, were placed in waggons, and ready to be removed from the capital, when the archduke Charles arrived at Vienna, at ten in the morning of the 27th of December, with the conſolatory intelligence of his having concluded at Steyer an armiſtice of thirty days with general Moreau.*

For the concluſion of this armiſtice, there were not wanting very cogent inducements on both ſides, as is very fairly ſtated, in a letter from the general of diviſion, Deſolles, to the French miniſter at war, dated head-quarters, Steyer, the 26th of December, 1800. "The archduke Charles has propoſed an armiſtice to the general in chief, at the ſame time announcing to him, that the emperor had ſent a courier to Mr. Cobentzel, at Luneville, where a negotiation had been opened, in the end of September, with orders to ſign a peace.

"The general in chief, conſidering that the line of the Traun and Ens was forced, that we had advanced a hundred leagues before the other armies, that the Auſtrian army in Italy was behind us, that, of courſe, Mr. de Bellegarde had two grand means from Saltzburgh and Inſpruck

* The archduke made the propoſal of an armiſtice to general Moreau, at his head-quarters at Steyer, by count Meerfield, on the 25th; at the ſame time, he ſent the prince of Lichtenſtein to Vienna, to repreſent the neceſſity of making peace.

to

to ſend a detachment, which, joining itſelf to the troops left in Tyrol, might fall upon our rear, and cut off our communication with France, has thought it his duty to conſent to a convention, which, procuring us great advantages, left us the means, at the ſame time, of waiting for the operations of the army of Italy, of which we have yet had no intelligence.

"The character of the archduke Charles, his well-known probity and honour, are ſufficient pledges to us of the deſire the emperor now feels to put an end to the war. To this he has, beſides, been compelled by the deplorable ſtate of his army, which having loſt, in twenty days, ſixty-ſix leagues of country, 25,000 priſoners, 12 or 15,000 in killed or wounded, 140 pieces of cannon, and immenſe magazines, is not, at preſent, and would not be for theſe three months, in a ſtate to prevent our army from conquering all Auſtria, and dictating laws to its capital; but, to do this without danger, it was neceſſary that the army ſhould have been maſter of the head of the defiles of Carinthia.

"The general in chief believed, beſides, that to ſtop, in the midſt of the moſt brilliant victories, was conformable to that character of moderation, in which the chief conſul wiſhes to make himſelf known to the whole of Europe. I have the honour to addreſs to you a copy of the armiſtice. The emperor has determined to treat of peace, whatever may be the determination of his allies; and our line, as it approaches to the Danube and to the mountains of the Tyrol, and puts into our hands the ſtations of Ruffſteinſhoer, Nitz, Braunau, and other ſtations, will afford us the means of renewing the war with the greateſt advantages, but, above all, with the greateſt ſecurity."

This armiſtice aſſigned to the French army of the Rhine a triangular portion of territory, whoſe baſe reſted on Chiavenna and Wurtzburg, and whoſe point was between Leoben and Pachlarn on the Danube, within fifty-two Engliſh miles from Vienna. It comprehended the Gallo-Batavian army, as well as that of the Rhine. It was not to be for a leſs duration than thirty days; at the expiration of which time, hoſtilities were not to be reſumed until a farther notice of fifteen days, to be dated from the hour in which the notification of the rupture ſhould be made known; and the armiſtice was to be indefinitely prolonged until the notice of rupture. No corps or detachment, either of the French army of the Rhine, or of that of his imperial majeſty in Germany, were to be ſent to the reſpective armies in Italy, ſo long as there ſhould be no armiſtice between the French and the imperial armies in that country. The general in chief of the army of the Rhine engaged to tranſmit, with the utmoſt diſpatch, the preſent convention to the generals in chief of the Gallo-Batavian army, that of the Griſons, and that of Italy; with the moſt preſſing invitation, particularly to the army of Italy, to conclude, on his part, a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities.

As ſoon as general Augerau was informed by Moreau of the new armiſtice, he ſent to the Auſtrian generals Klenau and Simbſchen, to conſer on the ſettlement of the line of demarkation between the Gallo-Batavian army, and the Auſtrian corps in the upper Palatinate and Franconia. It was agreed that the river

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river Rednitz and the Maine ſhould ſeparate the two armies, as far as Lichtenfells on the line of neutrality. In this line was comprehended, Fortheim, Bamberg, Bannach, Haſſelſtein, and Lichtenfells. The Gallo-Batavian was likewiſe to occupy the city and diſtrict of Nuremberg. The general in chief was to take up his head-quarters at Wurtzburg, where, alſo, he eſtabliſhed his park of artillery. It now remains that we give ſome account of the affairs of Italy.

By the armiſtice concluded after the battle of Maringo, as ſtated in our laſt volume,* the French army was to occupy the country compriſed between the Chieſa, the Oglio, and the Po: and the Auſtrians, beſides certain territories which were ſpecified on the left bank of the Po, were to occupy the city and citadel of Ferrara, on the right bank. They were alſo to occupy Tuſcany and Ferrara. But the Auſtrians continued to keep poſſeſſion not only of the town and citadel, but alſo of a large territory called the Poleſino of Ferrara. At the ſame time that a diſpute aroſe, on this point of the Poleſino of Ferrara, a general inſurrection of the people, or, according to what had become a technical phraſe in military tactics, a levy en maſſe, was encouraged, and going on in Tuſcany. Hoſtilities were on the point of being renewed in Italy, when general Brune, informed of the preliminaries ſigned by count St. Julian, in which the emperor had engaged for diſarming of the levy en maſſe, and of the arrival of count Cobentzel at Luneville, immediately took the earlieſt opportunity of informing general Beellgarde, that until he ſhould receive farther orders from his government, he would ſuſpend the motions of the military force under his command. A new convention was agreed to on the 20th of September, at Caſtiglione, by which general Brune conſented to wait for an anſwer from Vienna, relative to the evacuation of the Ferrareſe by the Auſtrians. There was no mention in the treaty of Caſtiglione, of the diſarming the levy en maſſe. But the French general alleged, that he conſidered it as a matter of courſe, and, independently of the preliminaries juſt mentioned, was no more than a natural return for the condeſcenſion ſhewn in that treaty to the Auſtrians, reſpecting the Poleſino of Ferrara. The levy en maſſe, the French believed, or pretended to believe, was paid by the Engliſh; and they obſerved that it was re-enforced by a corps from Naples. The levy en maſſe was not in a ſtate of great forwardneſs, nor, if it had been completely raiſed and equipped, could ſuch a rabble of enervated Italians have been at all formidable to the troops of France. In truth, the French ſought a pretext for an irruption into Tuſcany; which they conſidered as a meaſure of precaution, in order to prevent, in caſe of a renewal of the war, the landing of the Engliſh in that quarter, of which they were apprehenſive, and which was certainly intended. A general officer, with only a ſmall eſcort for ſecurity againſt robbers, was ſent by general Dupont, in the name of the commander-in-chief, to general Sommariva, who commanded the troops

* Vol. XLII. Hiſtory of Europe, p. 195.

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in Tuſcany, with a requeſt that he would diſarm the levy en maſſe, or as it was otherwiſe called, the national guard, and alſo diſperſe the brigands, or parties of robbers. He ſignified to Sommariva, that if the armed peaſants did not return to their homes, by a certain day, he would enter Tuſcany, in order to diſarm, and puniſh them for the outrages which they daily committed on the territory occupied by the French army. The diſarming, and the diſperſion required, were, it has been ſaid, we know not how truly, promiſed: but this buſineſs, if undertaken, was delayed and evaded. This being quickly perceived, lieutenant-general Dupont entered Florence on the 15th of October, with a great army, which he had concentrated on the left bank of the Po, and general Clement, on the 16th, entered Leghorn. The inſurgents were early diſperſed, and ſent back to their ſeveral homes. General Sommariva, and the corps of Auſtrians who were in Tuſcany, to the number of 2500, were permitted to retire, through the midſt of the French, to Ancona. The merchandiſe of the Engliſh found in Tuſcany, particularly at Leghorn, though it had been permitted, by the armiſtice of Maringo, to retain its neutrality, was, in open violation of public faith and the law of nations, confiſcated for the benefit of the republic. But the Engliſh had taken care to avail themſelves of their navigation: ſo that the French treaſury was not much enriched by the plunder of the Engliſh merchants of Leghorn. A few days after the occupation of Leghorn by the French, the appearance of an Engliſh fleet before that port, having on board 12,000 troops, ſufficiently explained both the unwillingneſs of general Sommariva to diſarm the levy en maſſe, and the motives of the French for making ſudden irruption into Tuſcany. About the ſame time alſo a ſhip arrived at Ancona, from Trieſte, laden with ſeveral thouſands of muſkets for the uſe of the Tuſcans.

The army of the Tuſcan inſurgents, according to the report of Dupont, amounted to 25,000. Among theſe, the brigands of Arezzo were particularly diſtinguiſhed for their audacity. Their town was taken by aſſault, and a great number of the inhabitants put to the ſword. They were the ſame, Dupont ſaid, who dared to inſult the army of Naples in the laſt campaign. "It was in that city," he ſays, "that the famous miracle of the holy Virgin was fabricated, that gave the ſignal of inſurrection by the firing of a gun, which Mr. Windham, the Britiſh envoy to Tuſcany, one of the principal artiſts in that ridiculous miracle, made her diſcharge upon the French. Theſe impoſtures," he adds, "ſhould not be ſuffered to arm this multitude of peaſants and increaſe their force." Dupont, in another report to the general in chief, Le Brune, dated at head-quarters, Florence, October 19, 1800, ſays, "that the preſence of the French in Tuſcany* had been thought neceſſary by ſeveral partizans of the grand duke themſelves, who felt that the ſafety and honour of the French army requſred

* It may be ſatisfactory to ſome of our readers to be informed, that, on the apprehenſion of the French penetrating into Tuſcany, the collection of pictures belonging to the

required the measures which he (general Brune) had ordered." He urged yet another argument for the irruption into Tuscany. It was justified even by a concern for the welfare of the people. "Besides, says he, "the extraordinary levies inspired a very lively fear for the tranquillity of the interior of Tuscany, for their pay was an enormous weight, which that state could not support." In short, it was evident, from the variety of topics from which the French attempted to justify the invasion of Tuscany, that there was not any one ground on which that violent step could be justified; and that they were willing to derive advantage from it, without occasioning a rupture of the armistice, so long as there was any prospect of peace on the terms to be dictated by France through negotiation. Conformably to these views, general Dupont, to what has been quoted from his report, which the French government took care to have published in their demi-official Journal, adds, "That he had observed the highest respect towards the Austrian troops: and that nothing had passed that could, in the slightest degree, affect the armistice. All the officers had acknowledged, in that procedure, that the occupation of Tuscany was a particular measure which ought not to diminish the harmony that prevailed between the two armies." Whether the court of Vienna thought so or no, there did not appear any difference of opinion, from the movements of their armies, till the expiration of the truce of Hohenlinden. Skirmishes had taken place between advanced posts, but the campaign did not seriously begin till the 24th of December. The movements of Le Brune were directed by those of Moreau. He waited the arrival of Macdonald, with whom he was to co-operate.

It appears, at first, to have been the plan of the French to fall on the Austrians on the lake of Garda, and there to turn the lines of the Mincio. But general Le Brune, animated by the successes of Moreau, and acquainted, perhaps, with some encouraging circumstances respecting the state of the Austrian army, determined to attack them in front. On the 24th of December, the right wing of the French army, under lieutenant-general Dupont, recalled from Tuscany, received orders to march up the course of the Mincio, leaving a corps of observation at Goito, in order to make a feint of passing the river there. Orders were at the same time given for the disposition of the other divisions. Early on the 25th, a bridge was thrown over the Mincio, the passage effected, and the post occupied on the left bank, maintained by the French, against the most vigorous and repeated attacks of the Austrians, whose main force was drawn more and more to that quarter. Dupont, who had been recalled, with his troops, from Tuscany, had received orders, if he should find it expedient, to make a retreat; but the ardour of the French rendered this unnecessary.

the grand duke, with other valuable articles, being chiefly remains of antiquity, were packed up, and shipped on board of vessels on the Arno, to be sent, under convoy of an English ship of war, from Leghorn to Trieste and from thence to Vienna. At this period, the heathen gods and sages seemed to be on their travels from the south to the north of Europe.

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They firmly kept their ground, repelling every attack, and they were ſupported by French troops, diſpatched to their aid by the general in chief. In the courſe of that day, the French took 2000 priſoners, and ſeveral ſtandards. Next morning the paſſage of the river was carried by the main body at Monzanbano, ſituated between the lake of Garda and Mantua; but nearer to the former place than the latter. At five in the morning, 40 pieces of cannon were placed on batteries, on the right bank, in order to cover the conſtruction of two bridges. At ſeven, ſix companies of carbiniers paſſed the Mincio, in boats, for the ſame end. At nine, one of the bridges was completed, and the advanced guard effected its paſſage. The Auſtrians were drawn up on the left bank, ready to receive them. An order, given by lieutenant-general Delmes for a general charge by the French infantry and cavalry, was immediately executed. It was effected without firing a ſingle cannon. The French were expoſed to a briſk fire of muſketry and grape from the enemy againſt the front of all the columns: at the ſame time that they were ſtrongly cannonaded in front from the heights of Salionza. But the Auſtrians ſoon gave way to an attack ſo impetuous, and fled with precipitation. All thoſe who remained, were either killed or made priſoners. The flying Auſtrians were purſued to the heights of Vallegio. In the mean time, two brigades advanced to the left, to keep in check the forces which the enemy had under redoubts. Four pieces of light artillery were placed on a battery, near enough to counteract the fire from thence. The Auſtrians, after a brave reſiſtance, were driven from their redoubts by the bayonet. Meanwhile, two French brigades, under the generals, Caſſagne and Biſſon, had taken a poſition towards the heights of Vallegio, where they were ſoon attacked by the reſerve of the enemy, compoſed of the Hungarian grenadiers, to the number of 12,000. The French, re-enforced by additional numbers, charged, and completely routed the Hungarians. They loſt four pieces of cannon, one cheſt of ammunition, and about 2000 priſoners. This movement carried a part of the advanced guard of the French towards Vallegio, where it had ſtill to encounter a moſt obſtinate reſiſtance. Three times was the village taken, and retaken. The Auſtrian commander, unwilling to incur farther danger, beat a retreat: "2000 priſoners," ſays the French general of diviſion, Oudinot, (from whoſe circumſtantial accounts, tranſmitted in different diſpatches to the miniſter at war, we extract theſe general reſults) twenty-nine of whom were officers, 5 pieces of cannon, 2 howitzers, 900 muſkets, and 80 horſes, was the iſſue of this capitulation." In conſequence of theſe actions, the centre of the army, under the command of general Souchet, the reſerve under general Michaud, and the cavalry commanded by the general of diviſion, Davouſt, the ſecond bridge being now alſo conſtructed, effected their paſſage, and took up proper poſitions on the left ſide of the Mincio. In the night, the enemy, who had remained maſters of the caſtle of Valleggio, evacuated the place.

Next day, December 27, lieutenant-general Delmas, having entirely ſurrounded the redoubts of Salionza,

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Salionza, began to prepare for an aſſault, when the Auſtrians ſurrendered at diſcretion. Fourteen pieces of cannon, 1000 priſoners, and two pair of colours, fell into the hands of the victors. "Twenty-eight pieces of cannon, two howitzers, with their ammunition; about 5000 priſoners, among whom were 60 officers, and two ſtandards, were the fruits reaped by the French on theſe two days." Among theſe fruits, general Ondinot, whether from a fine ſentiment of humanity, or that he did not chooſe to make any eſtimate of the killed and wounded on both ſides, does not reckon the number of Auſtrians ſlain. This, however, muſt have been great. By ſome journaliſts, French and Engliſh, who give the reports of the day, inflated with various paſſions, and unchaſtiſed by the hand of time, it amounted to not leſs than from 6 to 7000.

The French, purſuing their advantages, proceeded to occupy on their left, the heights of Caſtel-Nuovo, and on their right, took poſt between Legnago and Verona. They ſent out detachments to inveſt Peſchiera, and blockade Mantua.

The main body of the Auſtrians had paſſed the Adige: but they had ſtrengthened, with a numerous artillery, and ſome troops, an entrenched camp, which they had formed before the town of Verona, covering the great road from that place to Mantua. From the reports of a reconnoitring party, it appeared that great numbers of Auſtrian troops were drawn up at all points along the whole line of the Adige. On the evening of the 30th, the pontoons were ſent from Volta and Monzanbano to Bouſſolingo, where it was determined that the paſſage of the river ſhould be attempted next morning at daybreak. An attack was to be made in two points. The firſt was the place where it was really intended that the advanced guard ſhould paſs, and one diviſion of the left, and two diviſions of the centre, were accordingly ſtationed a mile above Bouſſolingo, at the ſharp turning of the Adige. The ſecond paſſage, which was only feigned, was to be attempted near Ghieri, by the troops compoſing the reſerve. The right was to approach as near as poſſible to Verona, and to threaten the reſerved camp. The cavalry were to act along with it in this falſe attack. The diviſion under Boudet received orders to ſtorm the Auſtrian poſt at Chiuſa, to advance to the heights of Romada, and, proceeding from thence, to form a junction with the ſecond diviſion of the left, commanded by general Rochambeau, who had received orders to get poſſeſſion of Riva and Torbole, and marching up the left bank of the lake of Garda, to occupy Mori, and to proceed afterwards towards Roveredo, when the army ſhould have paſſed the Adige. The diviſion of the infantry and cavalry in reſerve, who, on the 31ſt, had made only a feigned attack at Ghieri, received orders, between the night of that day and the 1ſt of January, 1801, to march with the greateſt rapidity to Bouſſolingo, and there to paſs the Adige. The right wing, commanded by general Dupont, received orders to take poſt at Bouſſolingo. Theſe movements were executed on the morning of the 1ſt of January, in the courſe of which day the whole army, except-

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ing the diviſions under Boudet and Rochambeau, were on the left bank of the Adige, on their march towards Verona. In the night between the 1ſt and 2d of January, that city was evacuated; but 1500 Auſtrians were thrown into the two forts.

The diviſion under Boudet, in taking poſſeſſion of Chiuſa, made 300 priſoners; and, by the reduction of Alla, 500. General Boudet purſued his route to Roveredo, of which he was maſter on the 3d of January, and where he was joined by Rochambeau, who had taken poſſeſſion of Riva and Torboli, and concentrated his forces at Mori, according to his inſtructions.

The Auſtrians retreated from Verona by the way of Vicenza, and took a poſition to the left of Santo Boniſaccio, and the right of Montebello. A diviſion of the French army, under general Mouncey, was charged with the blockade of the forts of Verona. A diviſion, under Watrin, took poſt at St. Lucia: the diviſion of Boudet marched in the direction of Alla, as above noticed. The advanced guard, the centre, and the reſerves of infantry and cavalry, advanced in purſuit of the enemy, on the way to Vicenza, following the ſummits of the mountains. The Auſtrians defended ſome poſitions not without firmneſs; but perceiving that they were in danger of being turned, they retreated, in good order, behind Montebello.—The French purſuing now an eaſy courſe of ſucceſs, croſſed the Brenta, took poſſeſſion of Trent, and drove the Auſtrians from Baſſano and Caſtel-Franco* to Salvaroza. The road at this laſt place was thickly ſtrewn with the bodies of dead and wounded men. The French, in the courſe of eight days, had marched 130 miles in purſuit of the Auſtrians, who made little reſiſtance, but fled before them. In this rapid career, beſides the miſerable men, who only haſtened the approach of death by endeavouring to fly from it, upwards of 3000 Auſtrians were made priſoners. On the 12th of January, the reſpective poſitions of the armies, commanded by the generals Brune and Bellegarde, were theſe:

The left wing of general Brune's army, commanded by lieutenant-general Mouncey, had its foremoſt columns at Azalo, and by its poſts was connected with the centre, under the orders of general Souchet.

The advanced guard was eſtabliſhed at Salvaroza. At its right the diviſion under Watrin was poſted; and, on its left, the two diviſions of the centre.

The corps of reſerve was ſtationed behind Caſtel-Franco: the dragoons and the cavalry were alſo ſtationed in the environs of that place.

Over againſt the French, the Auſtrian army lay encamped on the plain of Salvaroza; and by their diſpoſitions appeared to expect, and to prepare for an attack, as the French, on the other hand, were determined quickly to make it. In theſe circumſtances, an Auſtrian colonel arrived at the French headquarters, and propoſed conditions of an armiſtice, which was concluded, on the 16th, at Treviſo, capital of the Venetian province of Treviſano, within twenty miles of

* In the engagement at the poſt of Caſtel-Franco, which was vigorouſly diſputed by the Auſtrians, the advanced guard was commanded by general Michaud, in the room of general Delmas, who was indiſpoſed.

Venice.

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Venice. The line of demarkation between the two armies was to be the Tagliamento, from its source in the mountains of Tyrol to where it falls into the Adriatic. The four fortreſſes of Peſchiera, Porto Legnago, Ferrara, and Ancona, were to be given up to the French. The blockade of Mantua was to be continued; but, by a new armiſtice, concluded at Luneville on the 6th of February, the emperor, as a proof of ſincerity, agreed to give up, beſides the four fortreſſes juſt mentioned, that alſo of Mantua. For a particular account of the armiſtice of Treviſo, as well as the treaty of peace to which it led, at Luneville, February 9, we refer our readers to the State Papers in this volume. The main object of both will be ſeen in the anſwer of Buonaparte to the propoſal of peace made by the court of Vienna, which was highly dignified. "The left bank of the Rhine ſhall be the boundary of the French republic: ſhe makes no pretenſion to the right bank. The intereſt of Europe does not permit the emperor to paſs the Adige. The independence of the Helvetic and the Batavian republics ſhall be enſured and guarantied. Our victories add nothing to the pretenſions of the French people. Auſtria ought not to expect from her defeats what ſhe would not have obtained by her victories. Such are the invariable principles of the government. The welfare of France ſhall be, to reſtore tranquillity to Germany and Italy: her glory to *deliver the continent from the avaricious and deſtructive genius* of England."*

As general Moreau, in the armiſtice of Steyer, had included the Gallo-Batavian army, ſo general Brune, in his ſtipulations with general Bellegarde, included that of the Griſons. General Macdonald, who was ambitious of following up his paſſage of the mountains by ſome ſplendid achievement on the other ſide, wrote an angry letter to general Brune, in which he ſaid, "You had no right to ſtipulate for the army of the Griſons; the buſineſs of which was, only to favour the operations of the army of Italy, without giving you any right to command me:" but the diſpute between the two generals was ended almoſt as ſoon as begun by the convention of Luneville, by which all the demands of the French were granted.

After the renewal of hoſtilities had called back the French troops from Tuſcany, the ſtrong averſion of the Italians was manifeſted in an inſurrection of the Tuſcan people, and alſo of the Piedmonteſe. Neapolitan troops marched for the ſupport of the Tuſcans; and the Piedmonteſe alone performed many actions of great courage and determined reſolution for the recovery of their independence: but theſe inſurrections were ſoon ſubdued by the overbearing force of the French arms. The French army of obſervation, under general Murat, 25,000 ſtrong, croſſed the Alps early in January, proceeded to Ancona, and forced the Neapolitans to evacuate Rome, and all the eccleſiaſtical ſtates, as well as thoſe of Tuſcany, and was ready to march, through thoſe ſtates, to Naples. Italy and Germany was at the nod of

* In this concluding ſentence, Buonaparte probably alludes to the *deliverance of Europe*, profeſſed, for ſome time, to be the great object of the war by our government.

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Buonaparte. Theſe great countries, from the ſhores of the Mediterranean to the Lower Rhine, the French contemplated as one continued ſcene of victory, power, and triumph.—It was obſerved by Julius Cæſar, as well as by Hannibal, as a general maxim of war, that aſſailants poſſeſs more courage and force than thoſe who act merely on the defenſive. This maxim was verified in the preſent campaign between Auſtria and France in a very ſtriking manner. The plans of the French were admirably arranged. There was a line as it were of armies, ſuſtaining and co-operating with each other from the Rhine to the Po; from the Pruſſian neutrality to the centre of Italy; and bodies of reſerve, ſtationed at different places, were ready to repair deſeats and improve advantages. Yet, on the whole of this long line, they were fronted by the Auſtrians, whoſe poſts, as well as thoſe of the French, appear to have been choſen with perfect ſkill, and whoſe armies, as well as thoſe of the French, might have been recruited with as brave and with ſtouter men, if there had been the ſame ardour and enthuſiaſm in the Auſtrian cauſe that called forth the energies of France. If offenſive operations have their advantages, defenſive operations have alſo theirs. The ardour of ſucceſsful onſets often carries the victors rapidly forward beyond the line of prudence. Their force is weakened by dilatation. They are expoſed to ambuſcades. If they are ſeparated into different parties, they are liable to be cut off in detail; or, if they keep together, they may be cut off from retreat, and reduced to famine. The ardour of generals Moreau and Brune, which appeared to precipitate them beyond the bounds of their uſual prudence, undoubtedly preſented to the enemy the moſt important advantages; nor can it be ſuppoſed that the Auſtrian commanders did not perceive it: but there prevailed in the imperial armies no ſmall degree of both diſcouragement and diſcord. They were without both the ſpirit and the harmony that is inſpired by the glow of a common paſſion. From a long train of diſaſters, they had loſt that which is moſt eſſential to an army, confidence in themſelves and their commanders. By the continued loſſes and defeats of the war, too, a great portion of the veteran troops was worn out, and, through a general deſpondency, the new levies in Hungary and Bohemia proceeded but ſlowly. The ſubſidies from England had not the influence either in raiſing new troops, or attaching the old to the continuance of the war that was expected.

But while all the continent of Italy crouched before the power of the French republic, a ſmall garriſon in the town and fortreſs of Porto-Ferrajo, in the iſle of Elba, on the coaſt of Tuſcany, defied their utmoſt efforts for its reduction, and bravely ſtood out till the war was concluded, by a peace between France and England. When the French troops entered Tuſcany, in October, 1800, a number of Engliſh, who were at Leghorn, under the conduct of Mr. Iſaac Grant, the Engliſh vice-conſul at that port, took refuge in Porto-Ferrajo. At his inſtigation, the inhabitants formed the noble reſolution of defending themſelves againſt the republicans. The men took up arms, and even the women took an active part in the defence of the place. It received

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ceived ſupplies, with 300 ſoldiers, for the moſt part artillerymen, from the Engliſh ſquadron, under ſir J. B. Warren. Four hundred Corſicans, in the pay of the Engliſh government, with a number of Neapolitan deſerters and others, alſo paid by England, added to the natives of Porto-Ferrajo, and the Engliſh, raiſed the garriſon of that place to the number of 1500 effective men. It was inveſted, on the land ſide, by a French army 5000 ſtrong. Batteries were raiſed, and the town and fortreſs bombarded. Attempts were made twice to ſtorm it; but the aſſailants were repulſed with great loſs. A ſally was made by the beſieged, led on by Mr. Grant, and the principal batteries of the French were deſtroyed. The beſieging army was re-enforced, new batteries were conſtructed, and the bombardment was ready to be recommenced, when, in the beginning of Auguſt, the inhabitants of Porto-Ferrajo were ſummoned to ſurrender, by the count of Ventura, the miniſter of their new ſovereign, the king of Etruria, with a promiſe of amneſty.* The garriſon ſent for anſwer, that they acknowledged no authority but that of the grand duke of Tuſcany. The bombardment was recommenced from new batteries of four mortars, which did great damage.

When ſir J. B. Warren ſailed from Leghorn, in the beginning of Auguſt, to watch the motions of the enemy at Toulon, and to act as circumſtances might require on the coaſts of either France or of Spain, he left a diviſion of his ſquadron to cover Porto-Ferrajo. On the 14th of September the admiral returned. His force, together with the ſhips ſtationed before off the harbour of Porto-Ferrajo, amounted to ſeven ſhips of the line, three frigates, and two brigs, and carried troops deſtined for the relief of the brave garriſon. The ſhips of war were prevented from entering the harbour by the enemy's batteries. The troops, to the number of 3000, with a detachment of ſailors, were landed at different points, as near Porto-Ferrajo as poſſible. At the ſame inſtant, the beſieged made a ſally, and got poſſeſſion of the battery, which contributed principally to prevent the Engliſh ſquadron from entering the harbour. The Engliſh had advanced about a mile and a half from the beach, when the French general, Martin, ſeizing a favourable opportunity, attacked them with the bayonet. An attack was at the ſame time made, by the adjutant-commandant, Sacklem, on the ſide of the city. The Engliſh, after an obſtinate engagement, were forced to retreat, and make, as well as they could, to their veſſels. The Engliſh frigates, taking advantage of the moment, when the detachment from Porto-Ferrajo became maſters of the French battery, had entered the harbour; they were now under the neceſſity of retiring. One of them being diſmaſted, was towed off by a number of gun-boats.

Meanwhile an attack was alſo made by a party of the Engliſh, covered with three ſhips, on Marciana, which was equally unſucceſsful. Marciana was garriſoned

* The eldeſt ſon of the duke of Parma, agreeably to the treaty of Luneville, was called to the throne of Tuſcany, and on July 26 began to exerciſe the rights of ſovereignty.

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principally by Polish troops. The English were obliged to retreat with considerable loss. On that day, above 800 English were killed, drowned, in endeavouring, through rocks and precipices, to regain their boats, or wounded, and 200, including several officers, were made prisoners. In this attempt to relieve Porto-Ferrajo, and reduce the whole island of Elba, though unsuccessful, there was no deficiency of either courage or conduct. What could be done, was performed by admiral Warren, and our brave soldiers and sailors; and they were seconded by the gallant garrison, with the greatest judgement as well as alacrity.

The disasters of the 14th of September were, in some measure, compensated to the defenders of Porto-Ferrajo, by a more prosperous effort in November: when, previous to the confirmation of peace between France and England, they made a sally, as usual, under the command of Mr. Grant, and, after a bloody engagement, not only took the outer intrenchments of the French camp, but the post of Madonna della Grazia. Of the island of Elba, eight miles long, and two broad, part belonged to the grand duke of Tuscany, and part to the king of the two Sicilies. The Tuscan part was ceded by the treaty of Luneville: for what belonged to Naples, his Sicilian majesty received Piombino, a principality of Tuscany. On the other side of Italy, the Turks were apprehensive of a descent on the Morea, or the coasts of Albania, by the French from Ancona, and other ports; and the French in Ancona, on the other hand, were apprehensive of an attack by the combined squadrons of the English and Turks. Three Turkish ships of the line were sent to cruise in the Adriatic seas; detachments were also sent occasionally into those parts from the fleet under lord Keith, to scour the Adriatic of pirates, and to watch the movements of the French on the side of Italy. All the ports in the Adriatic, containing French troops, were declared to be in a state of blockade; it was also proclaimed, that all vessels bound to those ports would be taken. Land forces, too, were stationed on the Turkish coasts on the Adriatic.—Great precautions of defence, on the other side, were used by the French: among others, a chain was thrown across the mouth of the harbour of Ancona. This was the head-quarters of the French in Italy; but parties were stationed in other places of the ecclesiastical states, particularly in cantonments on the river Nera, which falls into, and opens a communication with, the course of the Tiber.

In the course of this summer great insurrections prevailed for some time in both Naples and Sardinia, the natural consequence of the diminished authority of government. A number of families of distinction retired from Naples to Rome: others went to Palermo. The malecontents were headed by a chief named Mammone, who advanced to the frontiers of the Roman territories, and appeared resolute to try his strength against any troops that might be sent against him. In Sardinia, a fellow of the name of Menmia, who could neither read nor write, was at the head of a great body of insurgents, conferred pretended honours and dignities on such of his followers as appeared most active and enterprising, levied money on the country,

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try, and set a price on the heads of those who were against him. The spirit of insurrection in those quarters was not broken, until the pacification between France and England recognised and confirmed an established order of affairs in Italy.

It is astonishing, and might well appear incredible, if it were not placed beyond all doubt by experience, that priests, women, and other domestics, in palaces, called courtiers, should have been able so often, through their influence with kings, to thwart the measures, and diminish the respect due to the highest degree of honour and military courage, skill, and success. The supreme rulers of states do not give way to the influence and insinuations of those around their persons, under the idea, that, in doing this, they hazard either the security or the honour of their crowns: but they are artfully led to believe, that both these are equally safe in the hands of certain favourites; and the usual jealousy that disposes sovereign princes, rather to check and pull down, than to honour and exalt such transcendent merit, as seems, in some measure, to eclipse the splendour of the throne, opens a way to the intrigues of the courtiers. Certain it is, that neither the virtue, nor military success and glory of prince Charles, the *Hector*,* as the baron Thugut was the *Pitt*, of Austria, and whose plan it was to call back the French from Germany and Italy, by penetrating into the heart of France, were able to screen him from a milignant and too successful influence and opposition at court.

The great object of the empress was, to save Naples through an amicable compromise: many of the best officers were neglected, and, in some instances, even dismissed from the army, because they were attached to the archduke Charles. The council of war, at the seat of government, whose measures had uniformly, and with very little exception, been followed by defeat and disaster, was generally detested and ridiculed by the army. On the whole, the nerves of the Austrian army were relaxed; the sentiments and wishes of the officers were discordant; and almost the only point on which there was a general una-

* As instances of many that might be mentioned of the humane and generous disposition of prince Charles, what follows is worthy of being recorded. When he was on his way from Bohemia to take the command of the army of Germany, as he approached the scene of action, he fell in with numbers of wounded and dying, abandoned by their companions, on the road, for want of horses to draw the carriages in their retreat. The prince immediately ordered the horses to be unyoked from several pieces of cannon that were likewise retreating, saying, that the relief of these poor men was an object far nearer his heart than the preservation of a few pieces of cannon. When general Moreau heard of this benevolent trait, he ordered the cannon that had fallen into his hands to be restored to the Austrians, saying, that he would take no cannon that had been abandoned from such humane motives.

At Passaw there was a repository of clothes and provisions destined for the poor of that city. This magazine, on the retreat of the Austrians to the Traun, fell into the hands of the French. The archduke immediately wrote to general Moreau, to acquaint him with its destination, and entreated him to spare it. The clothes and the provisions were distributed among the poor; and general Moreau wrote back to the prince, that he would never appropriate to his own use what had been destined for the relief of indigence.

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nimity in all ranks, was a desire that the war might be brought to a speedy conclusion. Such being the state of the Austrian army, and the Austrian people, the audacity of Moreau in advancing into the very heart of the Austrian dominions, instead of being charged with folly, may be thought to have been a conduct as well judged as it was daring.

By the treaty of Luneville, the feelings of the house of Austria were, no doubt, severely wounded. Deprived of the rich and noble inheritance of their Burgundian ancestors, and almost excluded from their long-loved Italy, they were isolated, in a great measure, from those points of contact, where they had so long and so often measured their strength with other powers, and on which they asserted their power, influence, and right to interfere, and be regarded with the highest degree of consideration in the great affairs of the finest part of Europe. Yet the wisest politicians were of opinion, that, in the compactness of empire, acquired by the accession of so much territory on the side of the Adriatic, in exchange for wider domains, but these disjointed, the Austrian family had gained, in stability and real strength, an ample compensation for what they had lost in extent of dominion. This opinion coincides with that of a great politician and profound scholar, who flourished in the end of the 17th, and beginning of the last century: the celebrated Fletcher of Saltoun. If his reasoning be just, it ought to be a consolation, not only to the friends of the house of Austria, but to all Europe, whose interest it is, that a government should be established in the vicinity of France, fitted to make a stand against its capricious sallies, and thereby to contribute to the general quiet and security of nations. The passage from Fletcher, to which we allude, may be quoted without much impropriety in this stage of the history of the Netherlands and the Austrian dominions and authority in Italy.—"The violation of the ancient privileges of the Netherlands, by attempting to introduce an absolute form of government, and the inquisition, was an extremely foolish measure, which, together with the cruelty of the duke of Alva, rendered the inhabitants of them most obstinate enemies; but the troops of Spain were at that time so excellent, that they would have easily surmounted this difficulty, notwithstanding the very strong situation of some of these provinces, and though the king had done nothing to redress their grievances, had it not been that Flanders lay at such a distance from Spain, that, as armies could not be transported thither without the greatest difficulty and expense, so that not only they, but frequently the advices by which they were to act, came not in time to answer the sudden emergencies that are always falling out in the course of a war, which the English and French, as being in the neighbourhood of these people, were able to foment with the utmost ease and expedition; and so blinded was this prince, that, as if Flanders had become the seat of his empire, he would needs from thence, and that, too, before the Flemings were reduced, make war upon France and England, as his successors have since done against the Palatinate. So gross an error not only occasioned a loss of seven of these provinces, and ruined his great designs in France and England, but reduced him to the greatest straits

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ſtraits in all his other affairs: which the French, in theſe latter times, being aware of, have never failed to direct the chief weight of their wars againſt theſe provinces, which lie ſo near their capital, and to employ the bulk of their forces, on that ſide, to their own great advantage, and the perpetual loſs of the Spaniards: nor at this day have they any other view in leaving a remnant of theſe provinces to the crown of Spain, but to keep their arms weak and unable to operate elſewhere, and ſo to increaſe the glory of the arms of France. Thus the French having been defeated by the Germans, in the battles of Treves and Altenheim, we ſaw their monarch, early in the ſucceeding ſpring, march into Flanders, there to regain his loſt reputation. And, at preſent, to render this province more expenſive and pernicious to Spain, after having ſtript her of the more valuable part of the country, they leave her in poſſeſſion of a number of large fortified towns, that require great garriſons to keep them. But though the French ſhould conquer all the reſt of Flanders, they will have the like advantages in the ſtate of Milan, where France can make war with much more eaſe than Spain; the paſſage for ſuccours, both by land and ſea, being nearer from Provence and Dauphiny than from that kingdom. And ſo France, finding her account ſo greatly in it, will never fail to carry on her wars in theſe diſjointed ſtates, till Spain herſelf, when utterly exhauſted by their ruin, and incapable of making a defence, be attacked in the laſt place. It was a moſt ſagacious ſaying of a happy genius, that, by the addition of Flanders, and the Spaniſh ſtates of Italy, the weight of Spain and the Indies became lighter. In our age, theſe ſtates have almoſt totally deſtroyed this weight. And it had been for the intereſt of Spain, that Charles V. had alienated the provinces of Flanders, by either annexing them to the empire, or making a preſent of them to any power who had been able to defend them againſt the French; that Philip, inſtead of retaining, by a moſt conſuming war, the dominion of a part of theſe provinces, had granted them all their liberty; or that the preſent king had yielded the remnant of them to France, rather than ſtill have retained them, to the greater advantage of the latter. So little do men ſee in their own affairs; and ſo great and innumerable miſeries do nations ſuffer, merely from the want of ſolid reflection."* It would ſeem that the ambitious policy of the French monarchs, reſpecting the provinces of Flanders and Milan, was very different from that of Buonaparte. Which of the oppoſite ſyſtems was the moſt judicious and ſolid, it remains for time to determine.

* See a Diſcourſe concerning the affairs of Spain—Political Works of Andrew Fletcher, eſq. of Saltoun.

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CHAP. V.

Political Views of Buonaparte, after a Pacification with Auſtria.—The Character now aſſumed by France.—Buonaparte cajoles Paul I.—and revives the Armed Neutrality of 1780, againſt Great Britain.—Convention on the Principles of that Confederation between France and America.—Ambaſſador ſent to the United American States from Denmark.—Diſputes between Sweden and Great Britain.—Capture and Condemnation of a Swediſh Convoy.—A Swediſh Veſſel preſſed into the Naval Service of England.—Complaints of this made by Spain and Holland.—Dignified Conduct on that Occaſion of the King of Sweden.—Reflections on the Queſtion concerning the Liberty of the Seas.—Hiſtory of this Queſtion.—Sweden and Denmark hoſtile to England.

THE chief conſul of France, having made peace with Auſtria, was now at liberty to bend his undivided attention to England. The leading features of his policy, with reſpect to this country, appear to have been theſe: to excite a confederacy, againſt this country, among all the maritime powers; to exclude her from all the ports of Europe; to attack, and, if neceſſary, to ſubdue her only remaining ally, Portugal; and exhauſt her finances, and weary out the patience of the Britiſh nation, by the continued threats and alarms of invaſion.

France, now in the ninth year of the war, aſſumed the character which England had taken at its commencement. The word, or according to the new phraſeology, the order of the day, in France, was, "The liberty of the ſeas, and the pacification of Europe."

The chief conſul was congratulated, of courſe, by all the conſtituted bodies, on the peace which he had ſo happily accompliſhed with Auſtria. In his anſwer to the legiſlative body, he ſaid, "France will not reap all the bleſſings of peace, until ſhe ſhall have a peace with England: but a ſort of delirium has ſeized on that government, which now holds nothing ſacred. Its conduct is unjuſt, not only towards the French people, but alſo towards all the powers of the continent: and when governments are not juſt, their authority is but ſhort-lived. All the powers of the continent muſt force England to fall back into the track of moderation, of equity, and reaſon."

Buonaparte, ever ſince the failure of his attempt, after his elevation to the conſulate, to negotiate a peace with England, continued, with increaſed earneſtneſs, to repreſent to all maritime nations the overbearing haughtineſs and inſolence of this country. By his miniſters and other

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other agents at the courts of Peterſburgh, Stockholm, Copenhagen, and Berlin, he inſinuated how encouraging the preſent poſture of Europe was for a revival of the armed neutrality of 1780, founded on the principle, that free and neutral bottoms make free and neutral goods, and how great the advantages of compelling the Engliſh to make peace on reaſonable terms.

The deſultory and frantic mind of the emperor, Paul, had been irritated, by various accidents, againſt the courts of both Vienna and London, but eſpecially againſt the latter. Diſputes had ariſen, even to the height of action, between the Ruſſians and Auſtrians, after the reduction of the Ex-Venetian iſles, in 1799, at Ancona. The Auſtrians had not duly ſupported the Ruſſians, in the campaign of that year, againſt France: and it appeared, not indeed without reaſon, that a neighbouring and rival empire, was not actuated by the principles which had drawn the Ruſſian potentate into the confederation againſt the French republic, but by views of individual aggrandiſement. Whatever was the cauſe, certain it is, that the emperor of Ruſſia had conceived great diſguſt at the emperor of Germany: in ſo much, that when the latter announced his intention of ſending an extraordinary ambaſſador to Peterſburgh, to offer excuſes for what had happened at Ancona, Paul refuſed to receive him: and, the more fully to give vent to his paſſion, he gave orders that no anſwer ſhould be given to the notification from Francis. As to England, mutual accuſations had taken place between the Ruſſian and the Engliſh generals, after the unſucceſsful and diſaſtrous expedition, in 1799, to Holland. After the firſt ebullitions of the emperor's rage againſt his own officers, his jealouſy and reſentment was awakened againſt the Engliſh. The beginning reſentment of Paul againſt the Britiſh nation, as well as the court of St. James's, was inflamed by the failure of his ſchemes in the Mediterranean.

The genius of the Ruſſian government, amidſt the caprices and ſingularities of individual characters, preſerves, on the whole, the impulſe and determination that was given to it by the Great Peter. It was his aim to have a firm footing in the Mediterranean, as well as on the Northern ocean and the Baltic. In purſuance of this general aim, Paul had been led, by a concurrence of circumſtances, which need not to be here enumerated, to fix his eyes and heart on Malta. Though no abſolute promiſe was made to that prince by the other allies; yet, it would appear, that ſome hopes had been held out to him, or, at leaſt, that he was allowed, without being undeceived, to entertain a ſanguine expectation of being preſented with it.* A fleet, with troops,

* General Sir Charles Stuart, in ſtating the reaſons which induced him to reſign the command of the Britiſh forces in the Mediterranean, wrote to Mr Dundas, on the 2d of April, 1800, the following: "Although I have freely ſubmitted theſe profeſſional remarks to you on the difficulty of reducing Valette, by ſiege, I muſt you will do me the juſtice to believe, that neither the circumſtances I have ſtated, the reduction of the force firſt propoſed, or the inferiority of the objects now in contemplation, compara tively with thoſe originally deſigned (among which the chief is known to have been the expulſion

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troops, had failed from the Black Sea, in Auguſt, 1800, for the expreſs purpoſe of taking poſſeſſion of the place when it ſhould ſurrender. No remonſtrances were made when Paul aſſumed, ridiculouſly, the title of grand maſter of Malta: and when he pretended to make captain Home Popham a knight of that order, his right to do ſo was recognized in the London Gazettee. When the original deſtination of that fleet was fruſtrated by the ſurrender of Malta, and its occupation by the Engliſh, it remained long at anchor in the canal of Conſtantinople, waiting for orders how to act. The reſentment of the emperor was, in the firſt inſtance, as uſual in ſuch caſes, wreaked on a weak party, preſenting itſelf as a ready object for the gratification of his paſſion. He demanded from the Grand Signior, the ally of England, a large ſum, ſtipulated, he alleged, to be paid by the Turks for the maritime aid of the Ruſſians. A ſharp diſpute aroſe on this ſubject. The Ruſſian admiral refuſed to return to the Crimea till the money ſhould be paid, and even threatened hoſtile meaſures againſt Conſtantinople. The Porte was obliged to yield to the menaces of the enraged czar of Muſcovy. Nor is it by any means unimportant, however ludicrous, on the preſent head, to mention, that Paul was highly offended by the caricatures of his perſon and character, publiſhed in the ſtreets of London; and which Buonaparte took ſpecial care to have tranſmitted to Peterſburgh. On the irritable and irritated temper of the emperor, diſguſted with Auſtria, and much more with England, but as prone to ſentiments of gratitude and generoſity as to thoſe of reſentment, Buonaparte operated with conſummate addreſs and complete ſucceſs.

The world was not a little ſurpriſed at the arrival of an embaſſy in Paris from Paul I. not more than a year after his famous proclamation for reſtoring the throne of the Bourbons. This embaſſy conſiſted of the general baron de Sprengporten, an old Swediſh refugee at the court of Ruſſia, prince Joſeph Dolgorowki, the count de Tiſſenhaveen, a captain in the Ruſſian army, Mr. de Scheping, ſon of the grand mareſhal of Courland, and other gentlemen. This ſtately company was met by general Clarke, at Bruſſels, and by him conducted to Paris on the 18th of December. The oſtenſible object of the embaſſy was, to treat for the releaſe of the Ruſſian priſoners

expulſion of the French from Egypt), make me for one inſtant wiſh to relinquiſh the danger or honour of the undertaking: but the ſame point of honour, the good of this country, and, I may add, the humanity which gives riſe to theſe feelings, *rendered it impoſſible for me to obey the particular inſtruction concerning the introduction of a Ruſſian force into Malta.*" Mr. Dundas, having read this extract, ſaid, "I cannot, on this occaſion, avoid remarking, that whilſt we are accuſed of acting with inſincerity towards Ruſſia, the circumſtance which led to this reſignation, is a ſtrong proof how anxious his majeſty felt to offer to that power, though bound to it by no poſitive engagement whatever, a participation in the advantages of that conqueſt, in caſe Ruſſia had remained faithful to her alliance, and to the bonds of amity then ſubſiſting between her and this country." *Parliamentary Regiſter, Houſe of Commons, March* 25, 1801. It is difficult to conceive, how the poſſeſſion of Malta could have been ſhared, with any tolerable proſpect of continued harmony, between the Engliſh and the Ruſſians. But the preſent queſtion is, whether Paul had any reaſon to look for either the whole or a ſhare of it?

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that had fallen into the hands of the French, to the number of 7000. For this body of Ruſſians the Britiſh government had refuſed to exchange an equal number of French priſoners. The chief conſul, in compliment to Paul, gave orders that all the Ruſſian priſoners ſhould be newly clothed and accoutred in the uniforms of their reſpective regiments, and reſtored freely without exchange or ranſom. Each man was preſented with a fuſil of French manufacture.

The baron de Spengporten bore the title only of envoy. He was followed, in February, 1801, by an ambaſſador, accompanied by a retinue equally ſplendid. The envoy with his train was treated with very marked reſpect: but ſtill greater marks of reſpect and reverence were in reſerve for the ambaſſador. When it was made known in France, that an ambaſſador from Ruſſia was on his way to Paris, his arrival was expected in that city with the utmoſt eagerneſs, and every preparation poſſible was made to gratify the vanity of Paul, in the perſon of his ambaſſador. This was the count Kalitcheff, a man of modeſt, unaſſuming, and courtly manners, who had before ſuſtained the character of Ruſſian ambaſſador, at Berlin and other courts. The count muſt doubtleſs have been aſtoniſhed to find himſelf treated, by ſo great and glorious a nation as the French, with a degree of magnificence and of adulation exceeding all the marks of honour and devotion that he had ever known to be paid to his own imperial maſter. On his entrance into Paris, he was ſaluted by a fire of all the cannon. A magnificent palace was appropriated to his reſidence, and he was entertained at the expence of the republic. He was honoured with a body guard. It was artfully contrived that petitions ſhould be preſented to him from perſons under the proſecution or the ſentence of the law, imploring his interference in their behalf with the chief conſul, and from others, ſoliciting favours. The protection of Kalitcheff was never extended to any one without effect: his applications to the conſuls were never made in vain. But what was conſidered as the head and crown of all this climax of compliment to Paul, was, the affectation of granting, only through the interceſſion of the emperor of Ruſſia, peace and independence to the king of Naples. The queen of Naples, judging rightly of the character of Paul, governed more by private humours and caprices, than by views of ſound policy, or even of ambition, had gone to Peterſburg, in November, 1800, to perſuade the emperor to continue the war, or if not, to continue, at leaſt, his countenance to the royal family of Naples, and to exert his influence and authority for the ſafety of the kingdom. A lady in diſtreſs could not ſolicit in vain the protection of a knight errant, after ſo long a journey in ſuit of it. The emperor's zeal in the cauſe of the Neapolitans was increaſed.

The French government expreſſed a diſpoſition to grant to the interceſſion of Paul, what they would have granted without it. General Murat, on the 24th of January, 1801, wrote from Florence, to general de Damas, commander of the Neapolitan troops, as follows: "It is almoſt a month, general, ſince the French miniſtry acquainted you that the intereſt which his majeſty the emperor of Ruſſia takes in the king

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of Naples, had induced the firſt conſul to bury in oblivion the innumerable injuries of all kinds, of which your government has been guilty towards the French people. After this opening towards a good underſtanding, we entertained the hope, that you would have remained a quiet ſpectator of a conteſt, in which you can be but of little conſequence on one ſide or other. Yet the king of Naples forgetting for the tenth time the dictates of ſound policy, and what was due to the generous conduct of the French government, diſpatched his troops into Tuſcany, where they came to be thraſhed by general Miollis. But war is attended with ſo many calamities, that the French government ſtudies all poſſible means of avoiding it. 1. Evacuate all the eccleſiaſtical ſtates, and the caſtle of St. Angelo. 2. Make no farther claims of any benefits from the armiſtice of Treviſo, in which you are not included, nor at all mentioned, or on the influence of a power which muſt no longer protect you. The only prince who has it now in his power to protect you, in conſequence of the perſonal regard that is borne to him by the firſt conſul, is, the emperor of all the Ruſſias. Let it be the ſtudy, ſir, of your government to merit a continuation of that prince's goodneſs; which cannot be done but by ſhutting all the ports of Sicily and Naples againſt the navigation of the Engliſh, and laying an embargo on all the ſhips of that nation, which it is now high time to expel from all points of the continent."

But the grand point on which Buonaparte's intrigues with Paul turned, was Malta. Malta was to be Ruſſia's whenever it could be wreſted, by arms or negotiation, from the Engliſh. It is almoſt needleſs to mention, that, amidſt ſo many acts of ſtudied complaiſance, orders were given by the French government for a ceſſation of all hoſtilities againſt Ruſſia. On the 19th of January, 1801, the conſuls iſſued a decree, by which, "All veſſels of the republic, and all cruiſers bearing the French flag, were forbidden to interrupt the ſhips of war, or the commerce of the emperor of all the Ruſſias, or of his ſubjects; on the contrary, all French veſſels were ordered to afford ſuccour and aid to the ſhips of Ruſſia.

Next to Ruſſia, the power of moſt importance, in the formation of a confederation againſt England for the purpoſe juſt mentioned, was Pruſſia. Without the concurrence of the king of Pruſſia, the hoſtility of the northern powers could not be attended with any bad effects to us, very laſting. But it was in the power of the king of Pruſſia, who commanded ſo extenſive a maritime coaſt, and the navigation of all the great rivers, from the Rhine to the Eider on the north of Germany, to render it truly formidable, and, at a time when Great Britain was hard preſſed by ſcarcity of proviſions and menaced with famine, peculiarly diſtreſſing. No means, therefore, were neglected by Buonaparte to ſtrengthen the confederacy by the acceſſion of the Pruſſian monarch. For the accompliſhment of this important object, he ſent his brother Lewis to Berlin; and a very happy opportunity occurred of intriguing for the ſame end, in the miſſion of the marquis de Luccheſini to Paris, to take care of the intereſts of Pruſſia,

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Pruſſia, during the negotiations at Luneville,* Lucchesini had for ſome time maintained an aſcendant over the mind of his royal maſter. It was chiefly by his counſels that the affairs of Pruſſia were then directed.

It was not by ſecret intrigues only that Buonaparte ſet himſelf to rouſe a general confederacy againſt England. He avowed this intention, with the reaſons on which it was formed, before the whole world, in a meſſage to the legiſlative body, the tribunate, and the conſervative ſenate, February 13, reſpecting the treaty that had been recently made with Auſtria; and which, as his other meſſages and meaſures, was printed and publiſhed. "Why," ſays he, "is it, that this treaty is not a treaty of general pacification? This was the wiſh of France! This was the conſtant object of the efforts of its government. But all its efforts have been in vain. Europe knows all that the Britiſh miniſtry have done, to prevent the ſucceſs of the negotiations at Luneville. In vain did an agent, authorized by the government, declare to them, on the 9th of October, 1800, that France was ready to enter into a ſeparate negotiation with them. Its declaration was anſwered only by a refuſal, under the pretext that England could not abandon her ally. Since that period, and after that ally had conſented to treat without England, this government ſeeks for other means of poſtponing peace, which is ſo neceſſary to the whole world: It violates a convention conſecrated by humanity, and makes war on fiſhermen.† It advances pretenſions

* It did not ſeem at all neceſſary to enter into any hiſtory of the negotiations at Luneville. The buſineſs tranſacted with the Auſtrians lay in a narrow compaſs, and was, in fact, for the moſt part, tranſacted at Paris. The emperor refuſed at firſt to conclude any treaty for peace, but in conjunction with his ally, Great Britain. After the battle of Hohenlinden, the progreſs of the French armies in the hereditary dominions, and the paſſage of the Mincio, and the Adige, by the army under general Brune, there was no longer room for negotiation. The emperor was at the mercy of Buonaparte. Beſides, the negotiations, whether at Luneville, or Paris, were not like thoſe of Raſtadt, in 1798, of a public, but of a ſecret, nature. By the preſence of count Cobentzel, for ſome time at Paris, inſtead of Luneville, the delays that muſt have ariſen, from the neceſſity of an intermediate agent, were avoided. The Auſtrian negotiation was inveſted at once with the character of prime miniſter, and plenipotentiary. And, as it was Buonaparte and count Cobentzel, that concluded the treaty of Campo Formio, they had conſiderable facilities in bringing the new arrangements to an iſſue. At Paris, there arrived, beſides the Pruſſian miniſter, ambaſſadors from the duke of Bavaria, the margrave of Baden, the pope, and the duke of Parma. The count de Cobentzel, on the 7th of November, accompanied by Joſeph Buonaparte, returned to Luneville, and again, after the armiſtice of Steyer, to Paris. The appearance of a negotiation at Luneville was not interrupted by the renewal of hoſtilities. Magnificent apartments were fitted up in the caſtle of Luneville for the Auſtrian and the French miniſters. A telegraph, for correſponding with Paris, was erected on the top of the caſtle. The preſence of ſo many diplomatic characters, gave an air of myſtery and importance to matters: there was, however, very little done but what was public enough, and of that there was, indeed, a great deal: a never ceaſing ſucceſſion of public balls, dinners, and other entertainments. The politeneſs, mutual civilities, and magnificence, that prevailed, ſeemed a triumph over the reign, of the committees of the conventional aſſembly, and the directory.

† Orders had been given, January, 1800, to the Engliſh privateers to capture all French fiſhermen: but, as full liberty of fiſhing on their coaſts to all nations was allowed by

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sions contrary to the dignity and the rights of all nations. All the commerce of Asia, and immense colonies, are no longer sufficient to satisfy its ambition. It is necessary that all the seas should be subjected to the exclusive sovereignty of England It arms against Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, because Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, have, by treaties mutually guarantied their sovereignty, their independence, and their flags. The powers of the north, unjustly attacked, have a right to rely on the assistance of France. The French government will, with them, avenge an injury common to all nations, without at any time forgetting, that it ought to contend only for peace and the happiness of the world." The same language was held by the tribunes. In all their harangues the chief burden of the song was, "*The liberty of the seas, and the repose of Europe:*" the glory of all which, it was always understood, would be principally due to the great nation.

Nor, in the great business of rousing a general confederacy against England, was the press neglected. Many pieces were

the French, these orders, on the 30th of May, were revoked. There appeared, however, to the British ministry, ground to believe that these fishermen were put into requisition and sent into Brest, to equip and arm the fleet, and that those who had been permitted to leave the prisons of this country, and return home, on the express condition of not serving in the navy, were also comprised in that requisition. Orders were therefore given, towards the end of January, 1801, that the orders which had been issued in January, 1800, should again be put in execution in every thing, relating to fishermen and their vessels. And the commissioners charged with the service of transports, and the care of prisoners of war, were ordered to require, in the usual mode of communication, that all those discharged on their parole, should be obliged to return to this country, and to signify to them, as well as to the French government, that such of them as should neglect to obey these orders, should be treated with all the rigour of the laws of war, in case they should be made prisoners again in the service of the enemies of his majesty. This notice from the British government produced the recall of Mr. Otto, with the copy of a note from Talleyrand, by orders from the chief consul, which he (Mr. Otto), on his departure, was to address to the British government. The note stated, "That if, on one part, this act of the British government, contrary to all the usages of civilized nations, and to the common law which regulated them even in time of war, gave to the present war a character of fury and violence, on the other it was impossible for him not to acknowledge that the conduct of the English government respecting the point in question, tended to exasperate the two nations more, and to remove the period of peace to a still greater distance: that, in consequence, the undersigned could no longer remain in a country, where the government not only abjured all disposition for peace, but where the laws and usages of war were despised and violated. The undersigned had therefore orders to quit England, where his continuance was, in every respect; useless, and he was charged, at the same time, to declare that the French government, whose first wish had always been to contribute to the general pacification, and with whom it had always been, to soften, as much as possible, the calamities of war, cannot think of rendering miserable fishermen the victims of the prolongation of hostilities; that it had ordered, on the contrary, that the French privateers or cruisers should continue to leave the fishery free and undisturbed." If the French government had fraudulently obtained the release of men from our prisons, as fishermen, who really were not such, our government had reason to complain. On the other hand, it could scarcely be supposed that the French fishermen should be exempted from being pressed, in order to be exempted from being captured. The class of fishermen supply hands for the British navy. The English ministry, on a due consideration of all circumstances, gave up the harsh measure complained of; and Mr. Otto remained in England.

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published, to shew not only that the overbearing power of this country at sea ought to be resisted, but that it might be resisted with success. "Fleets," says the Monitor (the French official paper), "are not the decisive weapon that determines the conflicts between empire and empire. Let the European ports be shut against England: let her be every where refused the means of repairing the damages of the weather and the winds: let her no longer be contended against at sea with unequal force; but let her waste her strength in useless stations and impotent blockades. Then it will appear, that the success and prosperity which depend upon fleets and shipping never have been or can be durable. Seamen have, at all times, ultimately yielded to soldiers. Witness the fate of Alexandria, of Tyre, of Rhodes, of Venice, Genoa, Portugal, Spain, &c.* They have all recoiled before the pressure of battalions: and prove that territory and men constitute the true source and real wealth of a state."

That France had determined to oppose the maritime claims of England was signified to this country in a very courteous manner. About the middle of January, 1801, some valuable books, magnificently bound, were presented to the royal society of London from the national institute of France. A letter of compliment accompanied this present, signed, *Buonaparte, president of the national institute, and first consul of France.* And, on the letter, was a finely executed vignette, representing liberty sailing on the open ocean in a shell, with the following motto:

Liberté de mer.

The liberty of the seas was not only recognised by the professions of Buonaparte, but by his conduct. After a long course of dispute, not absolutely hostile, a treaty was concluded, September 30, 1800, between France and America, on the principle, that free ships make free goods, contraband excepted. Passports from any place from whence any vessel should have sailed, with certificates ascertaining the cargoes, were to be sufficient guarantees, on both sides, to merchant vessels, against all insults. It was agreed that the citizens of the two nations might navigate and trade, in perfect freedom and security, with their merchandise and ships in the country and ports of the enemies of either party, without encountering any obstacle or control; and not only pass directly from the ports and fortresses of that enemy, but, moreover, from any place belonging to an enemy into any other belonging to another enemy, whether subjected or not to the same jurisdiction, unless these fortresses should be actually besieged, blockaded, or invested. The articles forming contraband during war were understood to be these: gunpowder, saltpetre, petards, matches, balls, bullets, bombshells, pistols, halberts, cannons, harnesses, artillery of all sorts, and, in general, all kinds of arms and implements for the equipment of troops. These articles, whenever they should be found destined for an enemy's port, were

* The *et cetera* might have been filled up, and the sentence very properly concluded, with Holland: but this was delicate ground.

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difficulties which had occurred.—Even before the treaty was brought to a conclusion, the French commissioners, by the authority of their government, declared, that, even in case of the present negotiation not terminating in a treaty, the American flag should, nevertheless, continue to be respected, and their vessels, in the French courts of law, be treated as those of a friendly nation. Orders were issued to the privateers to respect all neutral flags, among which those of the Americans were by far the most numerous, and American and other vessels were daily released, with damages against the owners of the privateers. Soon after the conclusion of this commercial treaty between the Americans and the French, an ambassador was sent, for the first time, to the United States from Denmark.

While the French government, by the shew of a frank and equitable conduct towards all nations, endeavoured to conciliate universal confidence and attachment, the British cruisers continued occasionally to knock about them, and to seize the ships of neutrals fraught, or suspected to be fraught, with military or naval stores to the enemies of Britain, as usual.

A fleet of Swedish merchantmen, carrying pitch, tar, hemp, deals, and iron, to several ports of France, was taken, January, 1798, sailing under convoy of a ship of war, and proceeded against for resistance of visitation and search by British cruisers. Sir William Scott, the judge in our admiralty court, after stating the law of nations, and that there did not exist any special circumstances in the case in hand, which ought, in any manner or degree, to affect the application of that general principle, which he held to be incontrovertible, observed, "That it was his business merely to decide, whether, in a court of the law of nations, a pretension could be legally maintained, which had for its purpose, neither more nor less, than to extinguish the right of maritime capture in war, and that by the direct use of hostile force on the part of a neutral state. It was high time that the legal merit of such a pretension should be disposed of one way or other. It had been for some few years past preparing in Europe, and it was extremely fit that it should be brought to the test of a judicial decision; for a worse state of things could not exist, than that of an undetermined conflict between the ancient law of nations, and a modern project of innovation, utterly inconsistent with it; and, in his apprehension, not more inconsistent with that, than with the amity of neighbouring states, and the personal safety of their respective subjects." The judge, then, having allowed such costs as seemed equitable, condemned the ships and cargoes, directing, at the same time, all private adventures to be restored; and he concluded in these words: "This is the substance of what I have to pronounce judicially in this case, after weighing, with the most anxious care, the several facts, and the learned arguments that have been applied to them. I deliver it to my country, and to foreign countries, with little diffidence in the rectitude of the judgement itself. I have still more satisfaction in feeling an entire confidence in the rectitude of the considerations under which it has been formed."

It is not common for men to bear with equanimity even the judge-

judgements pronounced againſt them in the name of law, much leſs do they endure with patience lawleſs and violent aggreſſion. The condemnation of the Swediſh veſſel as legal prize, by our court of admiralty, was leſs irritating to the pride and reſentment of the Swediſh king and government than an affair that happened afterwards to a Swediſh veſſel at a harbour of Spain. Two Spaniſh frigates, of 22 guns each, rode at ſingle anchor in the Mole, or inner harbour of Barcelona. About the end of Auguſt, 1800, two Engliſh men of war, with a frigate, appeared off the port, and continued to blockade it till the 4th of September. On the afternoon of that day, the Engliſh frigate, together with a boat from one of the ſhips of the line, the Minotaur, boldly ſet out from the ſquadron to which they belonged, with an intent to attack them and carry them off out of the harbour. On their way, they fell in with a Swediſh merchantman that was paſſing them under ſail. To expedite their ſcheme, and keep their force more compact, they laid the Swede along ſide, put a number of their men in the veſſel, and took her in tow into the harbour;* but, before they approached cloſe, the frigate and boat caſt off from the Swede, and plyed on their own oars along ſide the Spaniſh frigates, which they found ſo far from being in a ſtate of warlike reſiſtance, that, on board the largeſt, preparations were made for a grand ball and ſupper. The table was laid in grand ſtyle, and many of the principal people of Barcelona were momentarily expected on board. It is not improbable but they thought that the boats contained their gueſts, inſtead of ſo rude interrupters of their gala. The veſſels were eaſily carried; but the aſſailants had a conſiderable diſtance to tow their prizes down the Mole, before they could paſs Mount Joye. The pride of the Spaniards was the more hurt at this affair, that there was ſomewhat in it of the ludicrous. The officers of the two Spaniſh frigates had recourſe to every ſhift to excuſe their unwarlike conduct, and endeavoured to divert the reſentment of the government at Madrid from themſelves to the Swediſh ſhip preſſed into the ſervice of the Engliſh.

As the war between Spain and Great Britain did not permit the Spaniſh miniſter to addreſs a complaint on the affair of Barcelona directly to the court of London, he contented himſelf with denouncing the fact by a circular letter, dated at St. Ildefonſo, September 17, 1800, to all the ambaſſadors of foreign powers then reſident at Madrid, and with giving more particular information of it to the Swediſh government, whom this event intereſted more than any other, exhorting him to demand from the Britiſh government a ſatisfactory reparation for the inſult offered to his flag, and

* What compulſion was practiſed on the Swede we have not been able to learn. Perhaps he was paſſive and indifferent, except from an apprehenſion of blame from the Spaniards: perhaps he was induced to connive at the manœuvre by the proſpect of a reward. If he was really preſſed into our ſervice, in order to cover an act of hoſtility, it cannot, on any ground, be juſtified; and due ſatisfaction to Sweden would not have been a diſgrace, but a credit to Britain. Such practices would baniſh all confidence from the intercourſe of nations, and tend to ſhut every port of a belligerent power againſt a neutral flag.

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exemplary punishment on the officers who had dared to commit so criminal an offence. The representation that was made of that event by the Spaniards, founded, it was said, on a report by the Spanish consul at Barcelona, was, "That, on the 4th of September, 1800, in the afternoon, two English ships and a frigate forced captain Redbeard, of the Swedish brigantine, Hoffnung, after having examined his papers, and found them regular, to take on board English officers, and a considerable number of sailors, and to suffer himself to be towed, in the evening, by several English boats, as far as the road of Barcelona, and under the cannon of the batteries. That the English having compelled the said captain and his crew to be silent, by holding a pistol to his breast, took possession of the rudder, and, by means of the said brigantine and the boats which surrounded it, made an attack on two frigates under Spanish colours, which were there at anchor, and which having no reason to suspect that a neutral and friendly vessel could conceal enemies on board, and thus serve to favour a most treacherous attack, were, in a manner, surprised and forced to surrender."—The Swedish ministry, in a letter transmitted to the minister of his catholic majesty, and dated at Drottingholm, October 22, 1800, replied, in substance, "That his Swedish majesty was sorry that another instance had occurred of an insult offered to a neutral flag; but he hoped that, in due time, remonstrance would have its effect, and justice be obtained for such frequent outrages, both by the French and the English. Meanwhile, with the retort courteous, he called to the recollection of his catholic majesty, that such acts of violence very generally happened in Spanish ports, where no measures were taken to prevent them. In allusion to the trial and decision in our admiralty court, above mentioned, he observed, that Spain and all Europe were acquainted with the long process which Sweden had carried on in London on the subject of restoration, and that there could be no reason to expect that speedier justice would be done in a cause which required restitution to be made to an enemy. A note was likewise delivered to the Swedish king by the minister of the Batavian republic, urging his majesty to take speedy satisfaction for the affair of Barcelona. "As to you, sire," said the Dutch envoy, "Europe has its eyes on you, and expects, with impatience, the prompt satisfaction which is due to you. If the English government, deaf to the voice of honour, and to the representations of your majesty, do not make, *before the expiration of one year*, the reparation which is demanded, the Batavian government will find itself reduced to the harsh necessity of concerting with its allies the necessary means for securing its ports from any violence similar to that which has been exercised against the Swedish flag." The note from which this is an extract, was published at Stockholm, November 30, 1800.—The world was not at a loss to what source to trace this extreme urgency and decisive tone of the Batavian republic.

To the Batavian note, the chancellor of the Swedish court answered by another, in which he thanked the Batavian government, in the name of his master, for the part which the former had taken respecting

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ing the insult offered to the Swedish flag. "With respect to the term of a year, pointed out for the purpose of obtaining a reparation from England, his majesty did not think himself by any means circumscribed in point of time. If unexpected obstacles should occur, to prevent the removal of the existing difficulties, he should not deem himself responsible for any abuse of the Swedish flag, which the belligerent powers might choose to employ by way of reprisals against England, any more than he did for the abuse of it, which Great Britain had committed against Spain. Spain and all Europe was acquainted with the long process carried on by Sweden in London, on the subject of restoration of captured ships, and there could be no reason to expect that speedier justice would be done in a cause which required reparation to be made to an enemy. It would be much to be lamented, should the injustice of a third power be able to break connexions, which several direct discussions, during the war, had not altered. Unfortunate events of this nature had frequently taken place, *and some, as if they were peculiar to the Spanish ports.** The king of Sweden would demand of the court of London justice for Spain; but without answering for the consequence of this measure."—Though the king of Sweden, with great dignity, repelled the idea of being dictated to by the Spaniards and Hollanders, the event soon proved that he did not stand in need of their excitements to assert what he conceived to be due to his flag on any inviting opportunity; and such an opportunity, he at the same time knew, would by and by be presented by similar sentiments, passions, and designs, that had been growing up in different quarters, out of similar situations and circumstances, for years, and were now hastening to maturity.

The question concerning the liberty of the sea, like other questions in the law of nature and nations, has often been debated at great length, not only on political, but moral, grounds, as if the rulers of this world were to be restrained by any other considerations, than those of expediency, policy, and interest. The contempt of justice, which sovereign states discover in their territorial transactions with each other, is universally considered as inveterate, and past all remedy. Yet from the earnestness with which, not only civilians and other moralists, but politicians and statesmen, enter into elaborate discussions on the question of *mare liberum & mare clausum*,† it would seem that they still entertain hopes of persuading, by moral and theological arguments, sovereign states, and princes, to sacrifice their interests to a sense of duty. No politician thinks it worth while to oppose ethics, or religion herself, to the partitioning plans of France, Prussia, Austria, and Russia. If murmurs against violence and usurpation are heard for a time, they soon subside into a tacit acknowledgement of a right acquired by possession. Yet, attempts are constantly made, to convince the world, that it is immoral, in any great naval power, not to relinquish the advantages she

* In justification of this *retort courteous*, a particular and striking instance is mentioned, See State Papers, last volume.

† The navigation of the ocean perfectly free, or restricted by certain limitations.

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derives from her maritime superiority in favour of her enemies. At land, rights are obtained by conquest; uſurpations are legalized by time; property grows out of poſſeſſion. Rivers, lakes, mountains, deſerts, and other natural boundaries, define and aſcertain, in the imaginations of men, a right of dominion in thoſe who are able to bear rule in the encloſed regions. Becauſe the main ocean is not interſected by natural barriers, and dotted with forts; but, like the air we breathe, one continuous expanſe; it is imagined, that the law of force and occupancy, which does every thing on land, ſhould do nothing at ſea. But the law of *major vis*, if it be tolerated in the one caſe, ought to be equally tolerated in the other. The only difference is, that the fortified places,—fortified whether by nature or art, that confer continental dominion, are of a fixed, whereas the fleets and navies of a great and preponderating maritime ſtate, are of a moveable, nature. In the preſent ſtate of the world, which is in truth little better than a ſtate of war, the conduct of governments cannot be ſquared, in every inſtance, by metaphyſical accuracy: great indulgence muſt be, and indeed is, given to meaſures of ſtate, in the mutual tranſactions of nations. Nor are there many among theſe that admit of ſo fair an apology, as the right of viſiting and ſearching the veſſels of neutral powers claimed and maintained by the Engliſh. It is however our buſineſs to view this ſubject, not morally, but hiſtorically.

The right of examining and ſeizing neutral veſſels, hoſtile to the intereſts of any maritime power, under certain equitable modifications, has been maintained by authors of different nations, Italian, Spaniſh, Portuguze, French, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, and Engliſh. That right was generally acknowledged from the earlieſt times of a regulated commerce in Europe, and exerciſed too by every maritime power, when it ſuited its intereſt to do ſo. Authors there were, indeed, who maintained the unlimited freedom of the ſeas; when the ſtates to which they belonged, and under whoſe auſpicies they wrote, dreaded ſome ſuperior maritime power, and ſought to enjoy, under the ſhade of laws, what they could not command by their own ſtrength. An inſtance of this we have had recently, in an elaborate treatiſe, by a Daniſh * profeſſor, in the ſummer of 1800; written under the authothority of the Daniſh government, and publiſhed at Copenhagen, with a view to prepare the way for a revival of the armed neutrality. In general, what was to be expected, in fact, took place. The weaker maritime powers contended for *mare liberum:* the ſtronger for *mare clauſum.*

As England claimed, what ſhe had always exerciſed, a right of viſitation and ſearch, ſo Spain, France, Holland, and other maritime ſtates, conſtantly claimed the ſame right, whenever their intereſt required it; and they poſſeſſed power ſufficient to enforce it. In a word, the rights claimed by England, in regard to neutral veſſels, had been juſtified by the practice of

* Doctor Schlegel, profeſſor of laws in the univerſity, and aſſeſſor of the ſupreme court of judicature, Copenhagen.

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Europe, for centuries. They had been long recogniſed by the common acquieſcence of all nations, when they were attacked by the doctrines of the famous armed neutrality of 1780: for an account of which, we refer our readers to our volume for that year. *

Not many months had paſſed after the date of the maritime law promulgated by Ruſſia, before Sweden, Denmark, and Pruſſia, bound themſelves, by treaty, not only to adopt her laws, as obligatory on themſelves, but to aſſiſt in impoſing them, by force, on all other powers, and, particularly, on this country. Ten years did not elapſe, before the authors of that new ſyſtem, which had been framed to laſt for ages, were themſeles the firſt to violate it. In 1793, the empreſs of Ruſſia propoſed, and actually concluded a treaty with Great Britain, for co-operating in the late war with France. She expreſsly engaged to unite with his Britannic majeſty "all her efforts to prevent other powers, not implicated in this war, from giving any protection whatſoever, directly or indirectly, in conſequence of their neutrality, to the commerce or property of the French, on the ſea, or in the ports of France; and, in execution of this treaty, ſhe ſent a fleet into the Baltic, and North Seas, with expreſs orders to her admiral, to ſearch all Daniſh merchant ſhips ſailing under convoy. Thus, the empreſs of Ruſſia, when at war with France, felt the juſtice, as well as the expediency, of reſorting to the ancient ſyſtem of public law. The ſame ſyſtem was adopted by her ſucceſſor, with redoubled ardour. So lately as the year 1799, the Ruſſian emperor, Paul I. threatened the Danes with immediate hoſtilities, on account of their partiality to France, of which he ſtated one ſymptom to be, their ſupplying aſſiſtance and protection to the trade of France, under the neutral colours of the Daniſh flag; and if the emperor did not carry theſe threats into execution, with as much intemperate haſte, as he did his menaces in other inſtances, it was owing ſolely to the amicable interference of Great Britain, which Denmark repeatedly acknowledged.

An article, ſimilar to that in the Ruſſian convention in 1793, was agreed to between Great Britain and Pruſſia, another party, as already obſerved, to the armed neutrality of 1780. The ſame was likewiſe agreed to by Spain, and engagements of ſimilar import were entered into by Auſtria, as well as by Portugal and Naples. Denmark expreſsly renouncced the principles of the league of 1780, both by her own edicts, and by a formal treaty. The reſcript, publiſhed at Copenhagen, at the commencement of the preſent war, for pointing out to the Daniſh merchants the nature and limits of their neutral trade, inſtead of being founded on thoſe principles, was in direct contradiction to them. The Daniſh, were there expreſsly commanded not to attempt to carry in neutral ſhips, any property of the belligerent nations. In the year 1794, a convention was ſigned between the courts of Sweden and Denmark, for the mutual preſervation of their neutral commerce, during a war, in which almoſt every country in

* Being the XXIId. of the Annual Regiſter.

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Europe was then actually engaged. This treaty, being duly ratified, was by them communicated to the Britiſh government. In the ſecond article, they declared their adherence to their reſpective treaties with all the different powers at war, without exception. And by the third, they bound themſelves to each other, and to all Europe, that, in all matters not expreſſed in their exiſting treaties, they would not pretend to any other advantages than thoſe which were founded on the univerſal law of nations, ſuch as it was recogniſed, and reſpected, up to that moment, by all the powers, and all the ſovereigns of Europe.

But the principles of the neutral confederacy of 1780, and a lurking ill-will to this country, engendered by commercial envy, and wounded pride, ſtill rankled in the councils of both Sweden and Denmark. The difficulties which gathered more and more around Great Britain, forſaken by her allies, one after another, or what is infinitely worſe, obliged to forſake them, rouſed all thoſe principles of indignation and reſentment, with which theſe and other powers had been long actuated. The hoſtile diſpoſitions of Sweden we have already ſeen exemplified in acts of aſſiſtance to our enemy. Similar diſpoſitions were betrayed by ſimilar acts, on the part of Denmark, between which power and Sweden there would appear to have been a ſecret underſtanding, if not a formal concert.

CHAP.

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CHAP. VI.

Pacific State of Denmark, A. D. 1800.—*Origin of Differences between Denmark and Great Britain.—Danish Ships captured by the English.—Reflections.—Capture of a Danish Frigate and Convoy.—The Difference between the Courts of London and Copenhagen, in consequence of this Incident, amicably hushed by a British Plenipotentiary, backed by a British Squadron in the Baltic, for a Time—but not finally settled.—Revival of the armed Neutrality of* 1780—*in which the lead is taken by the Emperor of Russia—in Violation of recent Treaties.—An Embargo laid on all the English Shipping in the Ports of Russia, and their Masters and Crews marched into the Interior of Russia.—A Confederacy formed against the maritime Claims of Britain, by Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia.—Motives for this.—Prussian Troops enter the Bailiwick of Ritzebuttel.—The Danes seize Hamburgh.—Bloody Battle at Copenhagen.—Death of Paul I.—The Disputes between Great Britain and the northern Powers amicably settled.*

THE monarchy of Denmark and Norway had been at peace for nearly eighty years, with the exception of an incursion in 1790 into Sweden, which was terminated almost as soon as begun. A nation, which had so long enjoyed the repose and the blessings of peace, was naturally averse to war: yet, by a singular fate, the most peaceably inclined of all the confederation, now going on against Great Britain, was the first, the last, and the only power that was engaged in actual hostilities. Neither the absolute government under which they had lived so long, nor the sweets of so long a peace, had enervated their courage. They had not degenerated from the martial virtues of their ancestors. Such is the efficacy of climate, race, and a seafaring life, amidst the fluctuations of moral causes.

Many Danish ships had been brought into our ports, though it appeared, afterwards, that they contained no contraband commodities. This was a matter both vexatious, and attended with much loss. But the first difference of any consequence, since the armed neutrality of 1780, on the subject of the right of visitation by sea, arose in the month of December, 1799, in the vicinity of Gibraltar, between some English frigates, and a Danish frigate, named the Hauseneu, commanded by captain Van Dockum. The English commander sent on board the Dane, to demand from the captain his destination. The captain answered, that he was then going to Gibraltar. The English commander replied, that, if he was going to stop at Gibraltar, he would not visit his convoy; but that, in

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caſe he ſhould not caſt anchor there, the viſit certainly would take place. Captain Van Dockum then informed the officer who had come on board, that, in ſuch caſe, he would make reſiſtance. On this the Engliſh captain made the ſignal to examine the convoy. The boat of the frigate, which was the Emerald, prepared to execute this order. Some muſketry was fired down from the Daniſh frigate, and one of the Engliſh ſailors was thereby wounded. This frigate alſo took poſſeſſion of a boat of the Engliſh frigate, the Flora, and did not releaſe it, till after the Engliſh captain had given captain Dockum to underſtand, that if he did not ſurrender it immediately, he ſhould commence hoſtilities. The Daniſh frigate then repaired with its convoy to the bay of Gibraltar. There ſome diſcuſſions took place between lord Keith, commander of the Britiſh forces in the Mediterranean, and captain Van Dockum, whom lord Keith thought proper to conſider as perſonally reſponſible, and guilty of the injury done to a ſubject of his king. He thought it impoſſible, he ſaid, that the captain could be authorized to act in ſuch a manner by the inſtructions of his court. To clear up the buſineſs, the Engliſh admiral ſent an officer to Van Dockum, requeſting that he would ſhew him theſe inſtructions, and explain their nature. The Dane refuſed to let the admiral ſee his inſtructions, alleging that he was forbid to do ſo; but he told the officer that their import was, not to permit viſitation of his convoy, and that, in firing on the Engliſh boats, he only fulfilled his orders. The captain himſelf afterwards made like anſwer; and, on his word of honour, in converſation with lord Keith and the governor of Gibraltar; promiſing at the ſame time, to ſurrender himſelf before a judge, and to give notice of his appearance, on which promiſe, he was told that he might return on board: but, having entered his boat, he ſent a letter to the admiral, in which he refuſed to give the notice required. What had happened, was repreſented to the Daniſh miniſtry by Mr. Merry, the Britiſh envoy at Copenhagen, on the 10th of April, 1800, and a demand made, in the name of his government, for a diſavowal, apology, and reparation. This affair, without any other reparation than a diſavowal, was ſatisfactorily adjuſted. As it was not the intereſt of Denmark to go to war, the reſiſtance made to viſitation, by captain Van Dockum, was a matter of ſurpriſe to many, and a ſubject of various conjecture. The Danes probably entertained an expectation, that Great Britain, amidſt ſo many difficulties as thoſe in which ſhe was now involved, after experiencing a determination to reſiſt, on the part of the neutrals, would relax her vigour and promptitude in enforcing her maritime claims, as ſhe had done during the ſhort exiſtence of the armed neutrality, from 1780 to the peace of 1783. A ſimilar expectation, from a like conduct, was probably entertained by the Swedes. The general ſurpriſe was ſtill more excited, by an engagement which took place between a Daniſh frigate, the Freya, on the 25th of July, 1800, at the mouth of the channel, and no leſs than four Engliſh frigates, a brig, and a lugger. An officer from the foremoſt of the Engliſh frigates came on board the Freya, and deſired to ſearch the convoy.

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convoy. Captain Crab, commander of the Freya replied, that, without acting contrary to his instructions, he could not allow the convoy to be searched, but offered to lay all the ship's papers before the commander of the British ships: but the English officer persisted, in the name of the commodore, in his demand of searching the convoy, which was peremptorily refused.—About eight o'clock in the evening the commodore of the English squadron laid his ship along side of the Freya, and repeated his demand, that the convoy should be searched without opposition. He was going to execute this measure, and to send for that purpose on board the merchantmen; but captain Crab assured him, as he had done before, that this proceeding was diametrically opposite to his instructions, and that the boats would be fired on. The English commodore, whose ship lay nearest abreast of the Freya, at the distance of about a fourth part of a cable's length, gave her a full broadside, which was instantly returned. Captain Crab, having sustained the unequal contest for some little time, struck his colours. The Freya had two men killed, and five wounded, and thirty shots in the hull; the English had five men killed, and several wounded. The Danish frigate, as well as convoy, was taken, by the English commodore, to the Downs. Captain Crab, by orders of the English admiral, who commanded in the Downs, was sent back on board the Freya to draw up a report of what had happened. Two English officers, and thirteen men, but these not armed, were placed on board the Freya.

As it was apprehended, that, in the present disposition of the northern powers, this incident might lead to a renewal of the armed neutrality, and an extension of the war, lord Whitworth, for the prevention of extremities, and for the reconciliation of differences, was sent with a special mission to the court of Denmark; and, that the representations with which he was charged might have the greater weight, he was supported by a squadron, under the command of vice-admiral Dickson, consisting of nine sail of the line, four bomb-ships, and five gun-vessels. This armament sailed from Yarmouth on the 9th of August, 1800, at seven in the morning; and reached the Skow on the 15th. Sir Home Popham had been previously dispatched in a fast-sailing ship, the Romney, to advance as high as to the entrance of the Sound, to procure intelligence of the strength and position of the Danes, and for forwarding such dispatches as he might meet with from lord Whitworth. Four sail of Danish ships, of 74 guns, were moored, with springs on their cables, across the narrowest part of the Sound, extending from Cronberg-castle to the Swedish shore; and a frigate of 40 guns was moored so as to defend that flank of their line next the castle. On the 16th, at four o'clock in the morning, the whole of the British squadron had advanced as high as the Knolt; but the admiral's orders were not to enter it. As the masters and pilots had declared, that the Sound afforded no anchorage for the squadron, the admiral dispatched a letter to sir Home Popham, who, on account of a gale, had entered the Sound, desiring him to apprize lord Whitworth and the Danish commodore of his intentions to proceed to Elsineur,

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ſineur, a ſituation choſen by the admiral for three reaſons: firſt, to afford ſecurity and protection to the Britiſh trade in the Baltic; ſecondly, for ſafety to the ſquadron; and laſtly, by his actual preſence, to give weight to the negotiation lord Whitworth was charged with.—With theſe views, the ſquadron bore up on the 19th for Elſineur. At three, in the afternoon, it anchored and rode in ſafety in the Sound, notwithſtanding that the pilots had declared it to be impoſſible. Here the admiral ſtopped, in order to make his arrangements for paſſing the caſtle and the Daniſh ſquadron, in the event of hoſtilities on their part; but he had ſcarcely caſt anchor, when he received a very polite letter from commodore Leekins, commander of the Daniſh ſhips, inviting him, in the name of his king, to come to Elſineur roads. Here he alſo received diſpatches from lord Whitworth to the ſame effect. Directions were therefore given that evening, accompanied by an order of anchorage, for the ſhips to weigh ſeparately on the ſucceeding morning, and paſſing the fort and Daniſh line, to anchor above them, agreeably to the preſcribed order. In the morning the admiral went on board the Romney, and, paſſing very near the caſtle, proceeded about twelve miles up, and anchored off Sophienburg, where, on the day thereafter, he was met by lord Whitworth. A plan of co-operation was agreed on, in conſequence of which, the Romney advanced to Copenhagen, and four bomb and two gun-veſſels occupied the intermediate ſpace between the ſhip and the ſquadron, for the purpoſe of communication, which, by means of a telegraph, eſtabliſhed by ſir Home Popham, was both rapid and correct. On the 22d, the Daniſh men of war, ſeeing themſelves cut off, made a movement, anchored above the Britiſh ſquadron, and moored up and down the channel leading to Copenhagen. For this movement, they gave as a reaſon, that they had anchored on bad holding ground. The Britiſh admiral, therefore, pleading the ſame excuſe, made a counter-movement, and placed his ſquadron in the ſame poſition with that of the Danes; but, from the numbers of the Engliſh, they were advanced a good way above them; and in a ſituation to cut them off as effectually as at firſt, without the fear of being annoyed by the fort: On the 24th, the Daniſh ſhips made another movement, which the Engliſh admiral intended in the evening to counteract, and weighed for that purpoſe; but they again got under ſail, and ran higher up: and the next day they proceeded to Copenhagen, paſſed the Romney, and moored acroſs the harbour.

In Denmark it is common during the harveſt to permit the free men belonging to the army to aſſiſt in getting in the corn; but the whole of them were now called in to join their ſeveral regiments. Some regiments of cavalry, and other troops, were marched from Eckerſord and Renſburg to Gluckſtadt on the Elbe, the capital of Daniſh Holſtein. A great quantity of artillery and ammunition was ſent to that place, and its fortifications were put into the beſt ſtate of defence that time and circumſtances admitted. Batteries were alſo erected on ſeveral places on the coaſt; and three floating batteries were, on the 23d, placed in the roads of Copenhagen. In theſe preparations

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preparations, and in repairing and ſtrengthening the fortreſs of Cronberg, and the works around Cronberg, all the country was buſily employed. But it was found, on inquiry, that the Britiſh armament was very formidable. That the Britiſh veſſels, choſen for communication, were compoſed of bombs, placed alſo in a ſituation to bombard the city of Copenhagen, and that the ſquadron continued to advance, ſo as to be able to cover and protect them in the execution of that ſervice. The Daniſh government, therefore, came into terms, and matters were amicably adjuſted.

On the 29th, a convention was ſigned by lord Whitworth, the Engliſh plenipotentiary, and by count Bernſtorf, the Daniſh miniſter; the ſubſtance of which, was, "That the Daniſh frigate and convoy, carried into Deal, were to be repaired at the expenſe of Great Britain. The diſcuſſion reſpecting the right, aſſerted by the Engliſh, of viſiting convoys, to be adjourned to a farther negotiation in London. Until this point ſhould be decided, the Daniſh ſhips were to ſail, under convoy, only in the Mediterranean, for the purpoſe of protection from the Barbary corſairs; and the Daniſh ſhips were to be liable to be ſearched, as heretofore."

The works of defence, begun by the Danes, on the approach of our ſquadron, were not diſcontinued, till brought to a completion, after its departure. For defraying the heavy expenſe of theſe, a tax was levied of two-and-a-half per cent. on all commerce.

Though the diſpute between Great Britain and Denmark was huſhed for a time, it was not ſettled. Denmark did not diſtinctly abandon the principles of the armed neutrality. The cauſe of the difference that had taken place remained: and a future miſunderſtanding, from the very tickliſh ſituation of Europe, particularly of the north, was apprehended. The Danes therefore continued to ſtrengthen their naval force, which was already very conſiderable.*

The emperor Paul, whoſe animoſity againſt England was ſtill on the increaſe, being informed of the capture and detention of the Daniſh frigate with her convoy, laid an embargo on all Engliſh ſhips in his harbours. This, however, was taken off as ſoon as he learned that the diſpute about the frigate was amicably adjuſted. But his zealous endeavours to unite the other northern powers with himſelf, in confederacy againſt Great Britain, were continued. The ſame prince, who, in 1798, applauded our detention of the Swediſh convoy, and who threatened Denmark with war, in 1799, for aſſiſting the commerce of the French republic, not only joined, but took the moſt active part in a league among thoſe very powers, for the purpoſe of aſſiſting that common enemy, whom he had engaged to Britain, and to the world, to reſiſt, to the utmoſt extent of his power. He recruited his armies as well as his navy. The movements of his troops towards the confines of Turkey in Europe, appeared to indicate ſome plan concerted between him and the chief

* The Daniſh fleet at this time conſiſted of two ſhips of 80 guns, ten of 74 guns, and ſix of 64 guns, beſides frigates and ſmaller ſhips.

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conſul, who had become his great idol,* for the purpoſe of intimidating the grand ſignior into ſome conceſſions, as favourable to France, as detrimental to England. The reaſon aſſigned by Paul, in the Peterſburgh gazette, of the 10th of September, 1800, for ſetting on foot a great army, on the ſide of the Baltic, and diſtributing it in certain ſtations, which were pointed out, was "That ſeveral political circumſtances induced his majeſty, the emperor, to think that a rupture might enſue of the friendſhip between Ruſſia and England."

The moſt active preparations for naval war were, at the ſame time, carried on in all the Ruſſian ports.

It is the uſual policy of princes and ſtateſmen to conceal, as much as poſſible, their deſigns, till the moment of execution. Paul was neither guided in his conduct, by policy, nor by common prudence and diſcretion. He gratified his reſentments by an effuſion of words, before it was in his power to expreſs them by actions. The annunciation of his intention to quarrel with England was followed up, in the end of October, with a declaration, publiſhed in the Peterſburgh gazette, of his determination to revive the armed neutrality. He ſtated that, on mounting his throne, he found his ſtates involved in a war, provoked by a great nation, which had fallen into diſſolution; that, conceiving the coalition to be a mere meaſure of preſervation, this motive had induced him to join it; that he did not, at that time, think it neceſſary to adopt the ſyſtem of an armed neutrality at ſea, for the protection of commerce, not doubting, but that the ſincerity of his allies, and their reciprocal intereſts, would be ſufficient to ſecure the flag of the northern powers from inſult. But that, being diſappointed in his expectation by the prefidious enterpriſes of a great power, which had ſought to enchain the liberty of the ſeas, by capturing Daniſh convoys; the independence of the maritime powers of the north appeared, to him, to be openly menaced: he, conſequently, conſidered it as a meaſure of neceſſity to have recourſe to an armed neutrality; the ſucceſs of which was acknowledged in the time of the American war."

The rupture with England, which Paul had predicted as not improbable, was announced, together with the immediate cauſe that led to it, by the publication of an official note ſent to the foreign miniſters at the Ruſſian court, in the Peterſburgh Gazette, of the 7th of November, 1800: "Whereas, his imperial majeſty had learned that the iſland of Malta, lately in the poſſeſſion of the French, had been ſurrendered to the Engliſh troops; but, as it yet was uncertain whether the agreement entered into on the 30th of December, 1798, would be fulfilled, according to which, that iſland was to be reſtored to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem, of which his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias was grand

* As the great idol of his father, was Frederick the Great, of Pruſſia. A letter from general Pahlin, November, 1800, ſtates, that when he had the honour to dine with Paul, his imperial majeſty ſaid that he would give, as a toaſt, the greateſt man in Europe. On which he immediately drank Buonaparte, exclaiming, "Huzza! vivat Buonaparte!"

maſter;

miſter; his imperial majeſty, being determined to defend his rights, had been pleaſed to command, that an embargo ſhould be laid on all Engliſh ſhips in the ports of his empire, till the abovementioned convention ſhould be fulfilled.

By this time, the Ruſſian envoy, Liſakwitch, had received orders from his court to quit England, and to proceed to Copenhagen, where he was appointed ambaſſador.

In conſequence of the emperor's orders, not only an embargo was laid on near 500 Britiſh ſhips in the ports of Peterſburgh, Riga, Revel, and Cronſtadt, but the crews, with their commanders, were taken out of the veſſels, and diſperſed into the interior parts of the country, to diſtances, from a hundred to a thouſand miles, in bodies often of 12 men each, into priſon. On ſhore, all Britiſh property was ſequeſtered; ſeals were placed on all warehouſes containing Engliſh goods; and the owners were obliged to enter into recognizances to take inventories of their effects, and report the ſame to the government. When the embargo on the Engliſh ſhips took place, at Narva, on the 5th of November, the crews of two of the veſſels, indignant at ſuch arbitrary proceedings, on the arrival of a military force, to put them under arreſt, making reſiſtance, with piſtols and cutlaſſes, weighed anchor, and made off. The emperor, enraged at this, ordered the remainder of the ſhips in that harbour to be burnt. In the ſame gazette, November 21, that ſtated this mutiny, as it was called, and the condemnation of the ſhip, the emperor renewed his declaration, that the embargo ſhould not be taken off till the iſland of Malta ſhould be given up, to Ruſſia, agreeably, as he ſaid, to the convention of December, 1798.

The preponderating power of the Ruſſian empire, in the north, muſt, at all times, have great influence in the meaſures of Sweden and Denmark. The authority of the emperor Paul, combined with the maritime intereſts, or, as was contended, rights of theſe kingdoms, and the irritated pride of the Swediſh and Daniſh courts, formed a confederacy of Sweden Denmark, and Ruſſia, againſt the maritime claims of England: to which Pruſſia acceded, though under the ſtrongeſt proteſtations that this was conſidered, by the court of Berlin, merely as a meaſure of prevention, and that it by no means intended any thing hoſtile againſt Great Britain.

The king of Sweden, high ſpirited, young, and of a reſolute temper, was not only early brought over to a coalition with Paul, but took a very active part in extending it. For this purpoſe, he viſited the courts of both Peterſburgh and Copenhagen. In the mean time, naval preparations were carried on in his ports and arſenals. Denmark did not join the confederacy without heſitation. Never was the navigation of Denmark more extenſive than at this period, or its trade more flouriſhing. The merchandiſes of Europe, and both the Indies, poured into its ports. The Daniſh merchants, in the capital, and other ports, had amaſſed a degree of wealth, hitherto unknown in that country. A ſtate of affairs ſo proſperous, it was unwilling to exchange for a war with England; the certainty of which, ſhould it join the coalition, it had every rea-

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ſon to apprehend, from what had happened in the Sound, towards the end of Auguſt. While Denmark heſitated, the Ruſſian emperor threatened her with the ſevereſt marks of his diſpleaſure if ſhe ſhould perſiſt in her prudent plan of neutrality. Sweden too ſolicited the acceſſion of Denmark to the northern league, in a tone which appeared rather dictatorial. For ſome time the arrogance of the ſolicitations of both the Ruſſian and Swediſh courts deſtroyed their effect. For ſome time, it has been ſaid, the court of Denmark felt greater reſentment againſt its northern neighbours, than at that power againſt which they were endeavouring to arm it. But the right of viſitation at ſea, claimed by England, was every day more and more vigorouſly aſſerted. The ſituation of Denmark, between two ſuch powers, in hoſtility to each other, as Ruſſia and Great Britain, was truly arduous.

In this ſituation, Denmark, ſenſible of the neceſſity of connecting herſelf with ſome great power, by which ſhe might be protected, equally from the inſolence of the one, and the predominancy of the naval power and pretenſions of the other, formed connections, and yielded to the direction of the court of Berlin. The influence and authority of the king of Pruſſia, in Germany, in which ſo valuable a part of the Daniſh king's dominions, Holſtein, Sleſwick, and the Cimbrian Chereoneſus itſelf, was anciently conſidered as ſituated, had become nearly equal to thoſe of Auſtria. The intereſts, and the ſecurity of the north of Germany, were generally provided for by connections with the court of Berlin, as thoſe of the ſouth were by ſimilar connections with that of Vienna. And during the war, continued between Auſtria and France, beyond the year 1794, the king of Pruſſia was at the head of what was called an army of demarcation; ſupported at the common expenſe, for maintaining the neutrality of the north of Germany: of which, in fact, he ſeemed to be emperor, and to exerciſe over the ſecondary and ſubordinate powers, ſomething like the authority of a ſovereign lord over a feudal vaſſal. The policy of the court of Berlin was diſtinguiſhed by an union of prudence with vigour: and there was a ſtrong affinity of habits and manners between the Danes and Pruſſians. It was therefore natural for the Danes to ſeek a connection with Pruſſia, and it was as natural for the Pruſſian monarch to accept and cultivate their friendſhip and alliance, as thoſe of the Swedes. By a good underſtanding and alliance with Denmark and Sweden, which, as well as Denmark, was to a certain extent a German power, the Pruſſian monarch would extend and confirm his authority both in and on the northern parts of Germany; and, by acceding to the northern league he would be able to balance the aſcendency of Ruſſia, and to moderate that character of exceſs and violence, which the perſonal character of Paul, to the detriment of all his neighbours, might, without ſuch an antagoniſt and moderating power, introduce into the armed neutrality. Beſides all this, Pruſſia had become herſelf no inconſiderable maritime power: and to augment and extend this had long been one of the main objects of thoſe political combinations and plans,

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plans, in which the genius of the court of Berlin was ſo fertile. To maintain the freedom of the ſeas, therefore, was, and likely to become, every day more and more the intereſt of Pruſſia; though certainly its commerce had not yet attained to ſuch a pitch, as to place it on a level with its projects of continental ambition, if the maintenance or extenſion of both had been inconſiſtent.

Theſe conſiderations however, though obvious, were not perhaps, the true motives that influenced at this criſis, the court of Berlin. To penetrate into the ſecret workings of the underſtanding and movements of the heart, that are the original ſprings of great affairs, is not in the power of the annaliſt who keeps ſo nearly pace with time; ſeldom of the future hiſtorian. It is poſſible that the Pruſſian monarch may have been leſs actuated by the conſiderations juſt ſtated, than by ſome ſecret intrigues with Buonaparte, reſpecting indemnities, or a ſecret jealouſy and averſion to Auſtria, and of courſe to England, her great ally. Whatever were his ſecret motives, an opportunity ſoon offered of carrying his plan into execution.

In the beginning of October, 1800, a Pruſſian veſſel, belonging to Emden, laden with naval ſtores, and bound for the Texel, was taken by an Engliſh frigate and carried into Cruxhaven, a port belonging to Hamburgh. His Pruſſian majeſty remonſtrated on this to the ſenate, in ſtrong and ſevere language, and directed the duke of Brunſwick, as general of the army of neutrality, to march a body of two thouſand troops to take poſſeſſion of the village of Cruxhaven, and of the town and bailliwick of Ritzebuttel, within which bailliwick Cruxhaven is ſituated. The ſenate, after entreating that the courts of London and Berlin would ſettle this affair without involving the government of Hamburgh, purchaſed the veſſel from the Engliſh captain, and delivered her to the Pruſſian commander. But the march of the Pruſſians was continued. Lord Carysfort, the Britiſh miniſter, at Berlin, did not fail to repreſent, that the march of the Pruſſians againſt Cruxhaven, the cauſe being now removed, ought to be countermanded. Count Hogwitz, the Pruſſian miniſter, replied, that his Pruſſian majeſty, in the character of chief for preſerving the neutral line of demarcation, had found it neceſſary to occupy the port of Cruxhaven, in order to watch over the intereſts and ſecurity of thoſe countries within its boundaries. But that this occupation would not diſturb the good harmony that ſubſiſted between the courts of Berlin and London, and that neither commerce nor a free communication would be interrupted by it.

The declaration of the Pruſſian commandant, Wedell, on his entering Ritzebuttel, was, "That the temporary occupation of that bailliwick, and the village of Cruxhaven, by the troops under his command, had been occaſioned by a miſunderſtanding which had happened with reſpect to a Pruſſian ſhip. Though after ſeveral fruitleſs requeſts, and amicable attempts had been made, that miſunderſtanding was now happily done away, yet, as the marching of troops, rendered neceſſary by the inefficacy of theſe, in the beginning, had once been ordered, and already commenced, his majeſty had deemed it expedient

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to let it be continued, for the purpose of occupying the bailliwick of Ritzebuttel, to prevent similar events, and henceforth to watch himself over the maintenance of the neutrality of that place, so important for all states situated within the line of demarcation. This was the sole object of the arrival of the troops intrusted to his command. As their commanding officer, he would be particularly solicitous in maintaining public tranquillity and security, especially with respect to relations of neutrality; and, in vigorously protecting the civil branches of the Hamburgh government of that place, as well as other inhabitants and strangers arriving there, with all their rights, legal relations, affairs, business, and property, wherever it might be requisite: but principally commerce and navigation, which should not, in the least, be injured or restrained, but, on the contrary, better secured and preserved, in their tranquil and undisturbed course; without, however, making the least alteration in the constitution and public measures of the place: on the other hand, every person was required to behave in a peaceable manner to the king's troops under his command; otherwise, he would have to ascribe to himself the disagreeable consequences, which would inevitably arise from a contrary behaviour." This piece was dated at the bailliwick of Ritzebuttel, November 24, 1800.

The king of Prussia was now universally regarded as a party in that confederation, which, it was well known, was going on among the northern powers. The mouths of the Elbe, the Vistula, the Weser, and the Ems, lay within the precincts of those territories of whose neutrality he was the principal guardian. And these inlets gave him an opportunity of co-operating with the other confederates, as effectually as if Prussia had ranked among the first maritime powers. It was in the power of Prussia to exclude the merchandise of England from those ports, and to cut off the supplies of grain, which, in Great Britain, at a season of great scarcity, were eagerly expected.

The court of Berlin, joining a plausible pretext, and an imposing attitude, to a cautious conduct, served at once as a model, an excuse, and a shield to Denmark. While she prepared for hostilities she professed the most amicable dispositions towards England. She entertained some hopes that under the protection of a Prussian alliance she might escape the attacks of England, whose interest it so greatly was, to keep on fair terms with Prussia. Nor could the court of St. James's be surprised or blame her, if she joined a coalition supported on the one hand by the king of Prussia, and on the other, by the emperor of Russia.

The northern confederacy without the accession of Prussia was not complete. With the good will, or even neutrality of Prussia, Great Britain might defy the intrigues of Buonaparte, and brave the utmost rage of Paul, though seconded by so hardy and brave a country as Sweden. The accession of Prussia, involving of necessity that of Denmark, completed the chain, for excluding the English from the continent, from Petersburgh and Stockholm to the strait of Gibraltar. After the march of the Prussian troops to Cuxhaven, and the Prussian manifesto,

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fello, on that occaſion, the northern confederacy was ſoon formally concluded and declared to the world. It was ſigned on the 16th of December, 1800, by Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, and on the 19th by Pruſſia, as an acceding party. The principles of the northern confederacy had been before recogniſed in a treaty between Pruſſia and America. It was nearly the ſame with the armed neutrality of 1780, and the treaty between France and America already noticed; but ſomewhat more favourable to belligerent powers at ſea, and leſs to neutrals. It was required that the captain and half the crew ſhould be the ſubjects of the ſtate to which the neutral ſhip ſhould belong.* When the king of Sweden, under the name of count Haga, was at Peterſburgh, for the purpoſe of concerting with Paul the meaſures to be purſued in the armed neutrality, the emperor conferred on him the croſs of the order of St. John of Jeruſalem, or, of Malta. In conſequence of theſe hoſtile meaſures exhibited in the north, the Britiſh government, on the 14th of January, 1801, ordered a ſeizure, not only, in the way of retaliation, on Ruſſian ſhips, but on all veſſels belonging to any of the confederate powers, at that time in any of the ports of Great Britain, thoſe of Pruſſia excepted. And letters of marque were granted for the purpoſe of capturing a great variety of richly laden ſingle veſſels, as well as fleets, which were known to be working their way to the Baltic. A great number of veſſels belonging to the northern powers, but moſtly to the Danes and Swedes, were ſtopped in our ports, and many taken at ſea. Of 450 Swediſh ſhips that were abroad, it was eſtimated that 200 were either ſeized at ſea, or detained in Engliſh harbours.

On the day after that on which the order was iſſued, for laying an embargo on the northern ſhips, January 15, a note was preſented by lord Grenville to the Daniſh and Swediſh ambaſſadors, at London, reſpecting the embargo that had been laid on the Daniſh and Swediſh veſſels. The ſubſtance and import of it was, "that his Britannic majeſty, being informed of the re-eſtabliſhment of the armed neutrality of 1800 and 1801, and of the naval preparations in the Baltic, had determined immediately to adopt the moſt effectual meaſures for repelling the attack he had already experienced, and to oppoſe the effects of the confederacy armed againſt him. An embargo had been laid on all the Daniſh and Swediſh ſhips in the ports belonging to his majeſty. But, in the execution of this meaſure, his majeſty would take care, that no violent or ſevere proceedings ſhould be exerciſed, on the part of his majeſty, towards innocent individuals. His majeſty was ſtill animated by the moſt anxious deſire that the circumſtances which had rendered theſe ſteps neceſſary might ceaſe, and that he might be enabled to return to thoſe relations with the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen, which exiſted between them, till that mutual good underſtanding was interrupted by the preſent attempts to renew former pretenſions." To this note the Daniſh ambaſſador, count Jarlſberg,

* See convention between Sweden and Ruſſia for the re-eſtabliſhment of an armed neutrality. State Papers, vol. xiii.

 replied,

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replied, "that with respect to the principles of the northern powers, concerning the sacred rights of neutrality, they had not been abandoned. Russia, in her belligerent quality, had only suspended the application, and Denmark and Sweden had, by their convention of the 17th of March, 1794, declared, in the face of all Europe, that their system of protection, in favour of innocent commerce, was invariable. Hence it followed, that his Danish majesty now only renewed ties which had not ceased to exist." The baron, therefore, protested against proceedings of so hostile a nature.

The Swedish envoy, baron Ernsward, said, that, "as the dispute between the Russian and English courts related to the island of Malta, and the declaration of the Danish court referred to the convention of 1780, he could see no just reason, why the Swedish court, which had given no just cause of complaint to the English, should be attacked in so hostile a manner before any answer had been given to the insinuations contained in a note from the English to the Swedish ministry, at Stockholm, 31st of December.* In conformity to orders from his master, he protested formally against the embargo laid on the Swedish ships, and all loss or damage that might be thereby occasioned. He demanded, in the most forcible terms, that, in pursuance of the treaty of 1661, the embargo might be taken off, the continuance of which could no otherwise be considered than as a designed and premeditated declaration of war on the part of England, as well by the detention of the convoy, as in respect to the affair of Barcelona." When Lord Grenville's notification was received at Stockholm, all Swedish ships were immediately stopped from going to England, and an embargo was laid on all English ships in the Swedish harbours. After some farther civil remonstrations on both sides, the Swedish minister quitted England.

If Sweden and Denmark could have been detached from their connexions with Russia by any amicable means short of relinquishing the maritime claims of Britain, the court of St. James's would doubtless have come to an amicable adjustment. But, even from these claims it seemed disposed, in some measure, to recede in favour of Prussia, for the sake of peace with a monarch who had it so much in his power not only to distress Great Britain, but to annoy the sovereign of this kingdom by attacking the electorate of Hanover. Lord Carysfort, the English ambassador at Berlin, in repeated notes, represented the violent proceedings of Paul, and the unjust and hostile designs of the northern powers in general, with many expressions of confidence, that notwithstanding various reports and appearances, his Prussian majesty had not entered into the confederacy, to support by force principles in common with other powers, whose hostile views against his Britannic majesty had been openly proved. The last of these notes, dated at Berlin, January 27, 1801, concluded with the

* Notes nearly of the same date had been sent to both the Swedish and Danish ministry, demanding a frank and satisfactory explanation of the negotiations that had been carried on at St. Petersburgh.

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expreſſion of a firm reliance, that "whatever ſentiments the Pruſſian government might entertain, in regard to the new principles of the armed neutrality themſelves, it was too juſt, and knew too well what ſovereigns owed to their people, and to one another, to favour for a moment the deſign to employ force in order to induce his Britannic majeſty to acknowledge a code, which the latter deemed inconſiſtent with the honour and ſecurity of his crown." Lord Carysfort received, in anſwer, from the Pruſſian miniſter, count Hogwitz, a note, bearing date, 12th of February. It ſtated, among other particulars, "that his Pruſſian majeſty could not ſee without the utmoſt grief and concern, the violent and haſty meaſures to which the court of London had proceeded againſt the northern naval powers; the negotiation that had been lately carried on among whom was founded on juſtice and moderation; as the communication of a copy of the convention to ſuch of the belligerent powers as had the juſtice and patience to wait for it would fully prove.—The Britiſh government had, in the preſent, more than in any former wars, uſurped the ſovereignty of the ſeas; and, by arbitrarily framing a naval code, which it would be difficult to unite with the true principles of the law of nations. It exerciſed over the other friendly and neutral powers an uſurped juriſdiction, the legality of which it maintained, and which it conſidered as an impreſcriptible right, ſanctioned by all the other tribunals of Europe. The ſovereigns had never conceded to England the privilege of calling their ſubjects before its tribunals, and of ſubjecting them to its laws, in caſes where the abuſe of power had got the better of equity, and which were but too frequent. The neutral powers had always had the precaution of addreſſing to it the moſt energetic proclamations and proteſts; but experience had ever proved their reclamations fruitleſs. And it was not ſurpriſing that, after ſo many repeated acts of oppreſſion, they had reſolved to find a remedy againſt it, and for that purpoſe to eſtabliſh a well-arranged convention, which fixed their rights, and placed them on a proper level, even with the powers at war. The naval alliance, in the manner in which it had juſt been conſolidated, was intended to lead to that ſalutary end: and the king heſitated not to declare to his Britannic majeſty, that he had again found in it, his own principles, that he was fully convinced of its neceſſity and utility, and that he had formally acceded to the convention, which had been concluded on the 16th of December, laſt year, between the courts of Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden. His majeſty was, therefore, among the number of the contracting parties, and had bound himſelf, in that quality, not only to take a direct ſhare in all the events which intereſted the cauſe of the neutral powers, but alſo, in virtue of his engagements, to maintain that connexion by ſuch powerful *meaſures as the impulſe of circumſtances might require*. Unpleaſant as the extremes might be to which England had proceeded, yet his majeſty doubted not the poſſibility of a ſpeedy return, to conciliating and peaceable diſpoſitions, and he relied on the ſentiments of equity which, on former occaſions, he had had the advantage of meeting with in

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in his Britannic majeſty. It was only by revoking, and entirely taking off the embargo, that affairs could be brought to their former ſituation. While thoſe meaſures exiſted, which had been reſorted to from a common principle, and againſt an alliance which could no longer be ſhaken, the hoſtile reſolution which would be the conſequence, would be the neceſſary reſult of the treaty, and the Pruſſian miniſter was authorized to declare to the miniſter of his Britannic majeſty, "that the king, while he expreſſed his concern at events of which he had not been the cauſe, would ſacredly fulfil the engagements which had been preſcribed to him by treaties." From this note it was evident that Great Britain had nothing to expect from the neutrality of Pruſſia. Among the meaſures, which the *impulſe of circumſtances* required, were the two which the Britiſh government had greatly apprehended: the excluſion of the Engliſh commerce from the great rivers of Pruſſia, and the invaſion of Hanover. A declaration was iſſued, on the 30th of March, by the king of Pruſſia, to the royal and electoral college of Hanover, in which, after an enumeration of events which he alleged, ſufficiently proved that the court of London had no inclination to deſiſt from her inadmiſſible demands, and accept the propoſed means of amicable conciliation, he ſaid, that he was "compelled, in conformity to the obligations he had contracted, to take the moſt efficacious meaſures in ſupport of the convention, attacked, and to retaliate for the hoſtile proceedings againſt it. For this purpoſe, he would not only ſhut the mouths of the Elbe, the Weſer, and the Ems, but likewiſe take poſſeſſion of the ſtates belonging to his majeſty the king of England, as elector of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, ſituated in Germany. The king of Pruſſia accordingly demanded, and expected from the electoral college of privy counſellors at Hanover, that they would ſubmit to this diſpoſition without delay or reply; and that they would voluntarily obey the orders which ſhould be given, relative to the occupation of the electorate by the Pruſſian troops, and likewiſe relative to the electoral countries. What his Pruſſian majeſty principally demanded, was, that the Hanoverian corps, which had hitherto occupied part of the northern line of demarcation, ſhould be diſarmed and diſbanded, with a proportional part of the other troops. He alſo required, that the generals and other officers ſhould engage, in writing, not to ſerve againſt his majeſty the king of Pruſſia; but, on the contrary, to follow ſtrictly his orders, until the preſent affair ſhould be brought to a concluſion. For the troops that ſhould continue to be embodied, he appointed particular ſtations. All the other places were to be delivered up to the Pruſſian troops. The Pruſſian troops to be ſubſiſted at the expenſe of the electoral territory, commencing from the end of the month of April. In caſe of a voluntary ſubmiſſion, his majeſty was diſpoſed, and ready to promiſe ſolemnly, not only to the nobility, but to the burgeſſes and all the inhabitants of the electorate, the complete enjoyment of tranquillity, and the ſecurity of their property; but, on the contrary, ſhould the government and the general officers attempt to impede the execution of the meaſures taken, and

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and oppose the entrance of the Prussian troops, his majesty would be obliged, though against his inclination, to revoke his promises, and to treat the electoral states in a hostile manner."—To these conditions, by a convention, concluded on the 3d of April, 1801, the regency of Hanover consented, only expressing their hopes that the number of Prussian troops would be diminished, as much as possible, to ease the country and the inhabitants. The Prussian troops entered the territory of Hanover, and were posted chiefly on the banks of the Elbe and the Weser. An embargo was laid on the British shipping; but a number of vessels that had taken on board their cargoes of grain were suffered to depart, and sail for England.—The firmness and the moderation of the Prussian king formed a striking contrast with the capricious rage of his ally the emperor of Russia. Never was war carried on, by any power, with greater dignity, civility, and decorum.

About the same time, a body of Danish troops, to the number of 15,000, under the command of prince Charles, landgrave of Hesse, a field-marshal in the Danish service, and father-in-law to the prince royal of Denmark, there called the crown prince, took possession of Hamburgh, in order, as was declared, by a notification published at the exchange of Hamburgh, April 3, to stop the British navigation and trade on the Elbe. An embargo had already, on the 29th of March, been laid on the British ships at Copenhagen, and the other ports of Denmark.

When the intentions of prince Charles of Hesse were announced to the senate of Hamburgh, March 28, it sent deputies, on the 29th, to his highness, at Penneberg, a town of Holstein, about fifteen English miles from Hamburgh, to make the strongest representations against a measure so violent and unexpected. The prince, without hesitation, declared his intention to summon the city to surrender to his troops next morning, and even to use force in case of resistance. At the same time, the deputies received the most satisfactory assurances that no fears ought to be entertained for the independence of the city of Hamburgh, or the property of individuals; and farther, that his highness would be satisfied with the possession of the gates and walls, without requiring any troops to be quartered in the city. The senate assembled in the night, unanimously resolved, that it was better to yield to force than to expose the city to greater force, in consequence of any resistance. On the morning of the 29d, the gate, called the Millenthor, and a part of the fortifications, were immediately given up to a corps of Danish troops, and without the least interruption of the public tranquillity. The British consul, at Hamburgh, considering the critical situation of affairs, had given repeated information and advice to the captains of British vessels in the Elbe to accelerate their departure. Some took the warning: others, not easily believing that any thing seriously hostile was to be apprehended from the Danes or Prussians were not in haste, and were detained accordingly.

The English ministry, in such pressing circumstances, naturally had recourse to a mode of conduct, of the same nature with that which had been attended, at least, with partial and temporary success, about six

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ſix months before. This was to ſend negotiators for peace to Copenhagen, backed by a ſtrong fleet in the Cattegate. A fleet, conſiſting of 18 ſhips of the line, 4 frigates, and a number of bomb and gun-boats, amounting, in all, to 52 ſail, and having on board ſeveral regiments of marines, and of riflemen, ſailed from Yarmouth, on the 12th of March, for the Baltic.*—Meanwhile the moſt active preparations for war were continued and haſtened in the ports of Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark. The young king of Sweden was perpetually in motion. In the courſe of a tour to inſpect the ſtate of defence, and to animate by his preſence the armaments on the coaſts of his dominions, he had a conference with the prince of Denmark. A plan of action was concerted. The great object was to guard the paſſage of the Sound. Beſides the forts of Helſingborg and Cronenberg, which were garriſoned each with two regiments, batteries were erected on both the Swediſh and Daniſh ſides of the pats, on every point where it was poſſible for them to bear on the Engliſh ſhips. Batteries alſo were erected on the iſland of Amack, and on Sproe in the Belt. The naval batteries of the port of Copenhagen; and the citadel, were in a complete ſtate of defence. Artillerymen were ſtationed in all the batteries to fire, if neceſſary, with red-hot ſhot. The Daniſh coaſt was occupied with troops at proper ſtations. For bearing a part in this meaſure, the light infantry in garriſon, in the citadel of Copenhagen, were detached till farther orders. On the ſide of the Elbe, the preparations were equally vigorous. Nine gun-boats, well armed, were ſtationed on that river, a little below the Daniſh harbour of Altona, which could bring to, and ſearch almoſt every veſſel going up and down. Preparations were made for an encampment of 20,000 Daniſh ſoldiers between Altona and Gluckſtadt; and all the regiments in the dutchies of Sleſwick and Holſtein had likewiſe orders to march at ſix hours notice. In the midſt of theſe military preparations, Mr. Vanſittart arrived from the court of London, in a frigate, with a flag of truce, at Elſineur, on the 20th of March, with diſpatches for the Britiſh miniſter at Copenhagen, Mr. Drummond. Mr. Vanſittart had the powers of a plenipotentiary extraordinary. The ultimatum preſented by theſe miniſters to the Daniſh government, required that Denmark ſhould ſecede from the northern alliance; that a free paſſage through the Sound ſhould be granted to the Engliſh fleet; and that the Daniſh ſhips ſhould no longer ſail with convoy. Certain advantages are ſaid to have been held out to the Danes, in order to bring them over to theſe conditions: but what theſe were we know not; nor, indeed, whether they were at all offered. The terms offered by the court of London being rejected, Mr. Drummond and Mr. Vanſittart received paſſports to return home. The connexion between the Danes and Engliſh was ſo intimate, and the war between the two nations ſo unnatural, that the Engliſh who

* The Invincible, of 74 guns, ſoon after ſailing ſtruck on the ridge of ſand, fourteen miles from Winterton, and was ſo much damaged, that ſhe ſunk ſoon after in deep water. Admiral Totty, who was on board, with a few officers, 19 marines, and 164 ſeamen, were ſaved. All the reſt of the marines and ſeamen periſhed.

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resided at Copenhagen, and who were required immediately to leave Denmark, with Mr. Drummond and Mr. Vansittart, refused; and some of them even said, that they would remain in Denmark, whatever should be the consequence. Only the English consul, and some other persons, who had particular reasons, went on board an English frigate lying at Elsineur, on the 22d of March, and set sail for the English fleet then lying at Anholt, an island in the Cattegate, eight miles from the coast of Jutland, and ten from Zealand. The rest who chose, at all hazards, to stay behind, not only received permission from the Danish government to remain, but were generally permitted to choose the place where they would reside, and were promised, from the laws, full protection and security. The English fleet, in the night between the 22d and 23d, sailed from Anholt to Gilleleve, on the northern coast of Zealand,* and there anchored. It will now be proper to give as exact a statement as we have been able to obtain of the confederated navies.

The Danish navy consisted of 23 ships of the line, one or two of which were unfit for service, and most of them in bad order. They had 14 frigates and cutter-brigs, from 20 to 40 guns, 17 gun-boats, of 24 guns each, together with guard-ships. The fleet, however, was not adequately manned.

Sweden had 18 ships of the line, 14 frigates, sloops, and other vessels of war, and 74 gallies and flat-bottomed boats, besides gun-boats.—The Swedish fleet was supposed to be better manned than either that of Denmark or Russia.

The whole navy of Russia consisted of 82 sail of the line, besides near 40 frigates, exclusive of galleys and other small craft. Several ships of the line, however, were unfit for service. Of the force now stated, there were at Cronstadt, Revel, Petersburgh, and Archangel, 47 sail of the line. The whole of the Russian fleet was badly manned and officered. Notwithstanding that Russia produces all kinds of naval stores, the ships were but ill equipped. To remedy the want of officers, an academy had been instituted at Cronstadt, where 360 young noblemen and gentlemen were instructed in all the sciences suitable to their profession, and from whence they were promoted to the navy.

This aggregate of naval force, on hostile shores, and narrow and dangerous seas, with all its defects, would have been highly formidable even to the British navy, if it could have acted in unity and concert. But maritime confederacies are still more subject to disunion and distraction than confederacies at land; and Great Britain possessed, as the event proved, the same advantage over the northern confederation, that France enjoyed over the coalition of the greatest part of Europe.

The British admiral, sir Hyde Parker, desirous to know whether the Danes intended to oppose his passage of the Sound, sent a note, dated the London, in the Cattegate, 27th of March, as follows, to the governor of Cro-

* An island of Denmark, 700 miles in circumference, in which Denmark is situated.

nenberg-

nenberg-caſtle:—"From the hoſtile tranſactions of the court of Denmark, and ſending away his Britannic majeſty's chargé d'affaires, the commander-in-chief of his majeſty's fleet is anxious to know, what the determination of the Daniſh court is, and whether the commanding officer of Cronenberg-caſtle has received orders to fire on the Britiſh fleet as they paſs into the Sound, as he muſt deem the firing of the firſt gun a declaration of war on the part of Denmark."—The governor, Heer Stricker, replied, "I have the honour to inform your excellency, that his majeſty the king of Denmark did not ſend away the chargé d'affaires, but that, on his own demand, he obtained a paſſport. As a ſoldier, I cannot meddle with politics; but I am not at liberty to ſuffer a fleet, whoſe intention is not yet known, to approach the guns of the caſtle, which I have the honour to command. In caſe your excellency ſhould think proper to make any propoſals to the king of Denmark, I wiſh to be informed thereof, before the fleet approaches nearer to the caſtle."—To this note from the governor of Cronenberg, the Britiſh admiral ſent back another to his excellency. "Finding the intentions of the court of Denmark to be hoſtile againſt his Britannic majeſty, he regarded his excellency's anſwer as a declaration of war, and, therefore, agreeably to his inſtructions, could no longer refrain from hoſtilities, however reluctant it might be to his feelings; but, at the ſame time, the admiral would be ready to attend to any propoſals of the court of Denmark, for reſtoring the former amity and friendſhip which had, for ſo many years, ſubſiſted between the two courts."

On the 30th of March, the wind having come to the northward, the Britiſh fleet paſſed the Sound, and anchored about five or ſix miles from the iſland of Huin. It was fired on from the caſtle of Cronenberg, which it bombarded in return. There was no firing from the Swediſh coaſt; which enabled our ſhips to paſs at a greater diſtance from Cronenberg. There was very little damage done either by the firing of the caſtle, or by our bombardment. The paſſage of the ſtrait took up nearly four hours. The admiral, together with the vice-admiral lord Nelſon and rear-admiral Graves, reconnoitred the formidable line of ſhips, radeaus, pontoons, galleys, fire-ſhips, and gun-boats, ſtationed in the road of Copenhagen. They were flanked and ſupported by batteries on the two iſlands called the Crowns, the largeſt of which batteries was mounted with from fifty to ſeventy pieces of cannon. Theſe were again commanded by two ſhips of 70 guns, and a large frigate in the inner road of Copenhagen; and two 64-gun ſhips, without maſts, were moored on the flat, on the ſtarboard ſide of the entrance into the arſenal. The day after, the wind being ſoutherly, the admirals again examined their poſition, and came to the reſolution of attacking the Danes from the ſouthward.

Lord Nelſon having offered his ſervices for conducting the attack, after having examined and buoyed the outer channel of the middle ground, proceeded with twelve ſhips of the line, all the frigates, bombs, fire-ſhips, and all the ſmall veſſels, and, on the ſame evening of the 1ſt of April, anchored off Draco Point, to make his diſpoſition for the attack, and wait for the wind to the ſouthward.

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ſouthward. It was agreed on, between the admiral and vice-admiral, that the ſhips remaining with the admiral ſhould weigh at the ſame moment his lordſhip did, and menace the Crown batteries, and four Daniſh ſhips of the line that lay at the entrance of the arſenal; as alſo to cover our diſabled ſhips as they ſhould come out of the action.

The proſpect opened to the Britiſh fleet on entering the Sound was fitted to excite a variety of emotions, mixing or ſucceeding each other, of the livelieſt and moſt affecting nature. A ſplendid theatre appeared for war and victory: but the face of nature, and the recollection of a common intereſt, a common religion, and a common origin and character with the nations on the ſhores of the Baltic, could not but impreſs every intelligent and feeling mind with ſentiments of regret; and, in the midſt of all the apparatus, and almoſt in the very throat of war, tend, in ſome ſort and degree, to harmonize the mind to peace and concord. Nothing in the northern parts of Europe, or of Aſia, preſents a proſpect equal to the channel of the Sound: which has Denmark on the right, and the iſlands of Saltholm and Amack, with part of Zealand, and the capital of the kingdom, Copenhagen, nearly, in front. —On the coaſt of Denmark, appears a continued ſucceſſion of rich plains, woods, meadows, ſuperb manſions, neat villas, pleaſant gardens, adorned with all the embelliſhments of art: while the Swediſh ſhore exhibits corn-lands, paſtures, a mountainous and picturesque coaſt. The iſland of Nuen, celebrated for the obſervatory of Tycho Brahe, arreſts the attention of the paſſing voyager. To the eye, looking back from thence, the fortreſſes of Elſineur, Cronenberg, and Helſingburg, ſeem to unite, and, to bound on the north, a vaſt lake; but ſoon as he advances, he diſcovers the ſea, and the whole extent of the plain of Copenhagen, its port filled with veſſels, and its cultivated environs. On the ſide next the ſea, this city preſents itſelf in all its magnificence. It is perceived at the diſtance of ſeveral miles. The gothic towers with which it abounds, and which, from a diſtance, have a majeſtic appearance, engage and fix the attention of the ſpectator, by the height of their ſpires, as well as by the variety of the ornaments with which they are decorated. The number of inhabitants exceeds eighty thouſand. It contains the principal fortreſs of the country; the fleet; the marine arſenals; the only univerſity in Denmark; ſeveral academies; a ſuperb library; a veterinary ſchool; a ſchool for cadets in the ſea and land ſervice; a muſeum containing a great variety of rare and curious objects; a number of fine edifices, ſtatues, and monuments, of every kind. The ſtreets are, for the moſt part, broad and well paved. There are excellent footways, as in London; and every where the ſigns of comfort, wealth, and magnificence. The garriſon, in time of peace, conſiſts of ſix regiments of infantry, the foot-guard, the horſe-guard, a corps of artillery, a corps of marines, and a ſquadron of huſſars, amounting, in the whole, to about 10,000 men: to which may be added, the city-militia, the chief officers of which are appointed by the king, and rank among the officers of the army. The fortreſs of Frederickſtadt, ſupported on one ſide by the batteries of one of the arſenals,

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arſenals, defends the entrance of the harbour, where there is beſides another battery, and where, in caſe of neceſſity, a number of flat-bottomed boats and floating-batteries may be ſtationed, as, in fact, they were at the preſent juncture. Such was the city, the capital of a congenial and long friendly nation, that was now pointed out as an object of attack to the Britiſh navy.

In the morning of April 2, lord Nelſon made the ſignal for the ſquadron to weigh, and to engage the Daniſh line, conſiſting of ſix ſail of the line, eleven floating batteries, from twenty-ſix 24-pounders to eighteen 18-pounders, and one bomb-ſhip, beſides ſchooner gun-veſſels. Theſe were ſupported by the Crown iſlands, mounting eighty-eight cannon, and four ſail of the line moored in the harbour's mouth, and ſome batteries, as above noticed, on the iſland of Amack. The bomb-ſhip and ſchooner gun-veſſels made their eſcape. The other ſeventeen ſail, being the whole of the Daniſh line to the ſouthward of the Crown iſlands, after a battle of four hours, were ſunk, burnt, or taken.

From the very intricate navigation, two of our ſhips, the Bellona and Ruſſel, unfortunately grounded; but, although not in the ſituation aſſigned them, in ſuch a place as enabled them to be of great ſervice. The Agamemnon could not, weather the ſhoal of the middle, and was unavoidably obliged to anchor. Theſe accidents prevented the extenſion of our line by the three ſhips juſt mentioned, which lord Nelſon was confident would have ſilenced the Crown iſlands, with the two outer ſhips in the harbour's mouth, and prevented a heavy loſs of men in the Defiance and Monarch,* and which unhappily threw the gallant and good captain Riou under a very heavy fire. The conſequence was, the death of captain Riou, and many brave officers and men in the frigates and ſloops. The bombs were directed and took their ſtations in breaſt of the Elephant, in which the vice-admiral had hoiſted his flag, and threw ſome ſhells into the arſenal. Captain Roſe, who volunteered his ſervices to direct the gun-brigs, did every thing that was poſſible to get them forward, but the current was too forcible for them to be of ſervice during the action. The boats of thoſe ſhips of the line which were not ordered on the attack, afforded the ſquadron engaged every aſſiſtance. The Deſirée took her ſtation in raking the ſouthernmoſt Daniſh ſhip, and performed the greateſt ſervice. The action began at five minutes paſt ten. The van was led by captain George Murray of the Edgar, who ſet a noble example of intrepidity, which was followed by every captain, officer, and man, in the navy. The loſs, in ſuch a battle, was naturally very heavy. The total amount of the killed and wounded was ſtated at 943. Among the killed, beſides captain Riou, was captain Moſs of the Monarch: among the wounded, ſir Thomas B. Thompſon of the Bellona, who loſt his leg. Lord Nelſon, from whoſe report of the action to ſir H. Parker we have extracted theſe particulars, beſtowed the warmeſt and moſt liberal praiſe on all concerned; and on none more than on thoſe officers and men whoſe utmoſt exertions had proved ineffectual.

* See State Papers.

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actual. We now proceed to take notice of some other particulars respecting the engagement, not mentioned by lord Nelson.

The carnage on board the Danish ships was excessive. It was calculated by the commander-in-chief, Olfert Fisher, at 1800. The vessels were crowded with men, and from some singular neglect, probably originating in the idea of the wounded being so near the city that they could not be immediately accommodated there, there was not, on board their block ships, a single surgeon. When our people boarded them, they found hundreds bleeding to death. As soon as the fire of the Danish line had slackened and lord Nelson perceived that the ships and batteries of the enemy were in his power, he went to his cabin, and wrote a letter to the prince royal representing the expediency of allowing a flag of truce to pass, and stating, that if this was denied, he should be under the necessity of destroying the floating batteries, now in his power, while it would be impossible to save those brave men by whom they were defended. This note was addressed, "To the brothers of Englishmen, the Danes." When, in consequence of this representation, he received permission to land, and went on shore to adjust terms of conciliation, he was received by the brave and generous Danes, with the loudest acclamations, and treated by the accomplished prince of Denmark with every mark of respect.* The immediate consequence of their conference was an armistice, which soon led to an amicable convention.† The dreadful engagement heard, seen, and felt on the Danish shore, wound up the feelings of all ranks to the highest pitch of sensibility: but all individual hopes and fears seemed to be lost in a general blaze of patriotic ardour. From the crown prince, whose cool intrepidity and judgement were gloriously displayed in the sight of his people and of Europe, to the humblest citizen, one heroic mind and purpose seemed to animate and unite the whole. Never had the Danish valour, in the brightest periods of their history, shone out with more distinguished lustre. The daring pirates of the ninth and tenth centuries did not exhibit greater intrepidity and prowess in invading, than their descendents of the nineteenth century did in resisting an invasion from England. If the recollection of a common origin, a similarity of manners, and long habits of commercial and social intercourse, tends to impress on the two nations a conviction that they are fitted and destined to be good friends to each other, the ever-memorable battle of Copenhagen, not more glorious to the one party than the other, ought to be a long memento, that they are not less fitted to be mutually dreadful and destruc-

* The proposal of a truce by lord Nelson was ascribed by some not to humanity, but to military stratagem. Three of our line of battle ships, the Bellona, Russel, and Agamemnon, as before noticed, lay aground, exposed to the tremendous fire of the crown batteries. It was in order to save these ships, it was said, that lord Nelson went into his cabin, and sent on shore a flag of truce. If this was his motive, the greatest degree of admiration is due to that coolness, and readiness of invention, by which he devised means for extricating the ships from such imminent danger.

† See State Papers.

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tive enemies. Lord Nelson told the crown prince's aid-de camp, colonel Lundholm, who waited on him respecting the proferred flag of truce, that "the French fought bravely, but that they could not have stood an hour, the fight which the Danes maintained for four. I have been in 105 engagements, said he, in the course of my life, but that of to day was the most terrible of all." Admiral sir Hyde Parker in his dispatches to the admiralty, said, "Were it possible for me to add any thing to the well earned renown of lord Nelson, it would be by asserting that his exertions, great as they have heretofore been, never were carried to a higher pitch of zeal for his country's service."

The Swedish fleet at Carlscrona, left that port the 31st of March, but was prevented from joining the Danes by contrary winds. Surmises were current that the Swedish government was more eager to incite the Danes than to take themselves a share in actual hostilities. But they were wholly groundless.

On the 22d of March the Danish and Swedish isles in the West Indies were reduced by a squadron under admiral Duckworth.

The proposals made by lord Nelson, in the conference with the prince of Denmark, are said to have been these. 1st, That Denmark should recede from its alliance with Russia. 2d. That the English should be permitted to repair their ships in the Danish docks. 3d. That the wounded on board the English fleet should be taken care of in Danish hospitals. The last of these conditions was readily granted: the others rejected. An armistice however was agreed to, and prolonged from day to day. A notice of six hours, in case of an intention of renewing hostilities on either side, was to be given previously to the termination of the armistice. What passed in different conversations between the Danish prince and the English vice-admiral has not been yet disclosed. But whatever were the points that impeded a pacification on the part of Denmark, they were given up in consequence of intelligence, that the emperor of Russia, Paul I. was found dead in his bed on the night that followed the 22d of March. This sudden and important event was joyful to all, the French government excepted, and surprising to few! For more than a year past Paul had exhibited multiplied symptoms of insanity, as has been probably remarked by the readers of our annual narratives. In this the predominant ingredient was generally anger and rage. When dispatches were presented to him from the British government, containing terms of conciliation, he returned them unopened, after piercing them in many places with a penknife. In a review of some troops in front of his palace, an officer was thrown from his horse and dislocated his arm. The brutal emperor, instead of shewing any signs of compassion, kicked the officer, as he lay on the ground, with his foot. Yet his madness, though still somewhat tinctured with violence, was sometimes mixed with a degree of whimsical humour. In private conversation with a nobleman of his court, without any provocation or preliminary he gave him a hearty slap in the face, adding, "*This salutation with my hand Paul,*" alluding to one of the epistles from Paul, the apostle. A few days before the young king of Sweden, who had gone to concert

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cert the measures of the armed neutrality, left Peterſburgh, the emperor gave a tournament, a diverſion of which he was very fond, and in which he performed perſonally as a combatant. In the evening, while the glaſs was in circulation, with Ruſſian briſkneſs, a diſpatch was received from Buonaparte, together with ſeveral caricatures, ſaid to be publiſhed in England, in which Paul was repreſented as a lunatic. The converſation turned on the military ſucceſſes of his new French friends; the projects formed by the northern confederacy to humble the pride of England, and the invincible proweſs which the emperor had diſplayed all day long in the tournament. His majeſty, fired with the ſpirit of chivalry, immediately reſolved to ſend a defiance to all the potentates of Europe. The court gazette of St. Peterſburgh, December 30, 1800, contained the following: "It is ſaid that his majeſty, the emperor, ſeeing that the powers of Europe cannot agree, and wiſhing to terminate a war which has raged eleven years, intends to propoſe a place, where he will invite all other potentates, to fight with them in barriers cloſed up: for which purpoſe they are to bring with them their moſt enlightened miniſters, and moſt ſkilful generals, as ſquires, umpires, and heralds; ſuch as Thugut, Pitt, and Bernſtorff. He himſelf intends to have with him count Vander Pahlin and count Kutoſoff. It is not known whether this rumour is to be depended upon: meanwhile it does not ſeem to be altogether without foundation, as it bears the mark of what has often been imputed to him."

In the moſt arbitrary governments, the ſtability of power depends on public opinion. When all perſonal reſpect for even an Aſiatic deſpot is gone, the combinations and intrigues of courtiers, eaſily breaking through the feeble barrier of courtly ſplendour, which ſhines moſt at a diſtance, ſeldom fail to produce a revolution of government. The connection between a perſonal contempt for the ſovereign, and a revolution of government is ſtill more neceſſary in a country where commerce, the progreſs of knowledge, and ideas of liberty, have both diſpoſed and enabled numerous bodies of men to trace the connection between their own intereſts and the conduct of the ſovereign. But moſt of all is revolution to be apprehended from folly and madneſs in the court, in ſuch a country as Ruſſia, in which the ſucceſſion to the crown has been ſo irregular, and in which revolutions have been ſo frequent—certain it is that, from the date of the challenge, ideas and expectations of ſome revolution became familiar in the minds and converſations of men of all nations: but among none more than among the Ruſſians. The court gave out that the emperor was cut off by a ſtroke of apoplexy: the world believed that his death was the effect of a conſpiracy. This queſtion we leave to future hiſtorians. It is a queſtion indeed that belongs rather to the memoirs of a particular court, than to the political hiſtory of Europe. It is with the effects of the death of Paul, not with the chain of circumſtances that involved it, that an annaliſt is principally concerned.

The new emperor Alexander, proclaimed on the day ſucceeding the night of his father's death, de-

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clared for the laws and ſyſtem of his auguſt grandmother. It was among the firſt acts of his reign, to give orders that the Britiſh ſailors and maſters, who had been taken from the ſeveral Britiſh ſhips, in a ſtate of ſequeſtration, and ſent to various towns throughout the Ruſſian dominions, ſhould be ſet at liberty and carefully conducted to the ſeveral ports from whence they were taken. All prohibitions againſt the exportation of corn were removed: and the exportation of all kinds of grain was permitted. Peace and good underſtanding were re-eſtabliſhed between the courts of London and Peterſburgh, and all diſputes between Great Britain and the northern powers, were amicably adjuſted. By this ſettlement the northern powers obtained two material points: firſt, a limitation of the right of ſearch; and ſecondly, a diminution of articles deemed contraband of war.* While the negotiation was going on, we had a fleet in the Baltic of 25 ſail of the line, and nearly 45 frigates, ſloops, bombs, and gun-veſſels. The chief diviſion of the fleet, under lord Nelſon and admiral Graves, lay in Kioge-bay; and another, under admiral Totty, off Bornholm. Captain Murray, with a ſmall ſquadron, was off Dantzick; and lord H. Paulett cruized with a few ſhips off Roſtock. The Daniſh troops evacuated Hamburgh: the free navigation of the Elbe, Weſer, and Ems was reſtored; and the court of Berlin gave aſſurances that, after certain arrangements ſhould be made for the quiet of Germany, the Pruſſian troops ſhould evacuate Bremen and Hanover.

The termination of hoſtilities between Great Britain and Denmark was attended with ſome pleaſing and affecting circumſtances, ſuch as might be expected in a reconciliation of friends. The honourable colonel Stuart, who commanded the military on board our fleet, and whoſe gallantry was greatly praiſed by lord Nelſon, after an armiſtice was agreed on, brought over a letter from the prince of Denmark to our good king, his uncle. When the embargo, that had been laid on the Daniſh ſhips in the Britiſh ports, was, in conſequence of the pacification, taken off, the expenſe of both laying it on and taking it off was defrayed out of the Engliſh treaſury. This mild and liberal proceeding gave general ſatisfaction not only to the government and people of Denmark, but alſo to the people of England.

* See State Papers, p. 212.

CHAP.

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CHAP. VII.

Difficult and alarming Situation of England.—Indiſpoſition of the King.—Change of Miniſtry.—Oſtenſible Ground of Mr. Pitt's Reſignation.—Catholic Emancipation.—Policy of the old Adminiſtration in the Motive of their Retirement.—Purity and Firmneſs of his Majeſty's Mind.—Motion by Lord Darnley in the Houſe of Lords for an Inquiry into Part of the Conduct of his Majeſty's Miniſters.—Debates thereon.—Motion poſtponed.—Motion by the Earl of Radnor for a Call of the Houſe—negatived.—In the Houſe of Commons a new Speaker choſen in the Room of Mr. Addington.—New Chancellor of the Exchequer.—Animated Converſation reſpecting the Changes in the Adminiſtration.—State of Parties.—Characters of Parties—and of their Leaders.

THOUGH the difficulties and dangers, that encompaſſed Great Britain, from the commencement of the war, had been very great, the ſituation of this country, in the three firſt months of 1801, had become critical and alarming almoſt beyond any former example. Repeated efforts to circumſcribe had only ſerved to extend the power of France. The ſouth and weſt of Europe, ſubdued by the arms, or crouching under the power of that mighty ſtate, was detached from all co-operation, in the war with England, or dragged into the ſtream of hoſtility againſt her. The northern powers, envious of our commercial and naval greatneſs, and inſtigated by the intrigues of Buonaparte, revived claims inconſiſtent with both; and were prepared to maintain them by armies and armaments. At a time when the Britiſh nation, hard preſſed by ſcarcity, and threatened with famine, looked for a ſupply of grain to the ports of the Weſer, the Elbe, and the Baltic, theſe ports were ſhut againſt her. To crown the ſeries of calamities, the executive council of the king was in the act of diſſolution, and that at a time when a ſevere indiſpoſition rendered it impoſſible for the retiring miniſters to return, into the hands of their ſovereign, the badges of their office.

One conceſſion after another, on the part of the Britiſh government, during the whole courſe of the preſent reign, had abundantly ſecured to the Iriſh catholics their civil and religious rights; and admitted them, too, into as great a participation of political power, as was thought compatible with the tranquillity of the ſtate, and even with ſolemn and religious engagement. They were only excluded from ſitting in parliament, and from holding about thirty public offices. The men of pro-

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perty among the catholics were not, in general, diſcontented with their condition: though the great maſs of that body, labouring under many real grievances, totally unconnected with the queſtion of religion, were turbulent, and prone to innovation. This diſpoſition was foſtered by ambitious and factious men, who aimed, by a dextrous management of this engine, to force themſelves into the firſt offices of public truſt and emolument. Men of the faireſt characters, as well as firſt fortunes, were ſeduced, by an agitation that was neither founded on any juſt complaint, nor yet, in reality, formidable, to give their voice and influence for what they called a complete catholic emancipation, even before the union of Ireland with Great Britain. As near nineteen parts in twenty of the property in Ireland was in the hands of proteſtants, there was no evil, they reaſoned, to be apprehended from the complete emancipation of the catholics, in as much, as repreſentation was to be governed by property. But it was ſaid, on the other ſide, that if this computation of comparative property was near the truth, and the computation of the comparative number of five or ſix catholics to one proteſtant was alſo near the truth; when eighteen or nineteen in twenty, reckoning catholics and proteſtants, as to number, poſſeſſed little more than one part in twenty, as to property, and both parties were admitted to equal rights of office and adminiſtration, where was the man bold enough to undertake for the tranquillity of either the church or the ſtate?

The Britiſh miniſter, aware of this danger, did not encourage the claims of the catholics, or, perhaps, it might be equally accurate to ſay, the claims made for the catholics, while Ireland ſhould poſſeſs a ſeparate and independent legiſlature. The danger of granting all to the catholics would, no doubt, be diminiſhed, when the repreſentatives of Ireland, ſhould be blended with Britiſh lords and commons: And, Mr. Pitt gave the Iriſh catholics aſſurances, or, at leaſt, every reaſon to expect, that a complete participation in all manner of political privileges and power would be granted to the Iriſh catholics, after the union, not as a matter of right, but of grace and favour, on the part of Great Britain. It is evident, however, that Mr. Pitt, in the execution of that deſign, muſt have had remaining difficulties to encounter. His plan would interfere with the toleration act, the bill of rights, the act of ſettlement, and even with the union between England and Scotland. The miniſter ſaid, to the proteſtants, that the extenſion of all political power and privileges to the Iriſh catholics, would be ſo guarded and qualified, that all difficulties on thoſe heads would be removed, and all differences compoſed. In what manner this was to be done he did not explain.

But there was yet another difficulty which the miniſter, when he pledged the faith of government for catholic emancipation, did not foreſee, and it proved inſuperable. When he adviſed that meaſure, he either did not recollect the king's coronation oath, by which he had bound himſelf to "maintain the proteſtant religion, eſtabliſhed by law," or did not hold it to be inſurmountable. Yet, on the terms of this oath, the firſt king of the houſe of Hanover mounted the Britiſh throne;

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throne; and, under the same obligation, the sovereign now reigning possesses it.

His majesty's feelings did not accord with those of his minister. Firm in what he held to be his duty, and faithful to what he understood to be the spirit of his oath, he planted himself before the barrier of the constitution; and having conscientiously taken his post, determined to maintain it. And, certainly, it will readily be admitted, that the interpretation of him who takes an oath, not the reasonings of those who talk about it, must and ought to govern the conscience of the taker. The catholic question was the last that was discussed in the cabinet, previous to the king's illness.

Mr. Pitt determined to resign his offices of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer; and gave out, that his inability to propose his catholic regulations, as a *minister*, was the sole cause of his resignation. A paper, circulated, in his name, throughout Ireland, and which he did not, when called upon in the house of commons, disavow, contained this remarkable passage, "The catholic body will prudently consider their prospects as arising from *the persons who now espouse their interests*, and compare them with those which they could look to *from any other quarter*. They may, with confidence, rely on the zealous support of all those who retire, and of many who remain in office, when it can be given with a prospect of success. They may be assured, that *Mr. Pitt will do his utmost to establish their cause in the public favour*, (though he could not concur in a *hopeless* attempt, to force it now) and prepare the way for their finally attaining their objects." This paper became, naturally enough, a subject of much animadversion. Never, it was said, did the servants of the crown, in quitting the service of the king, so basely betray their master. What must be the feelings of his majesty, on looking back over that period of public affairs, which illness had concealed from his view, to find that he was held forth by the man whom he had long considered as most worthy of his confidence, to the Irish catholics, as the principal enemy of their claims? What must he think of the fidelity of that servant, who represented that master, who was, constitutionally, the source of grace and favour, as the obstacle to liberality and kindness? and who directed the hope of the subject from the crown to its dismissed minister? The communication of Mr. Pitt to the catholics, it was said, was as disrespectful to parliament, and to the country at large, as it was to the person of the sovereign. It, in fact, solicited the suffrages and the support of the Irish catholics, to Mr. Pitt and his friends, as the only person in the nation, who could carry their cause. It excluded every ground of hope, but *from that quarter*. It was not from the benignity of the king, it was not from the wisdom of parliament, it was not from the candour and justice of the people of England, that the Irish catholics had any thing to hope. Their prospects of success depended solely on the new elevation to power of Mr. Pitt and his party. But Mr. Pitt cannot concur in a hopeless attempt to *force the catholic cause now*. What was the meaning of this? When would the attempt cease to be hopeless?

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not while the ſame cauſe remained that rendered it hopeleſs at preſent: the ſame purity in the royal breaſt, the ſame reverence for an oath, and regard for the conſtitution in church and ſtate. There was an indecency in the language held by Mr. Pitt, that was generally noticed. Such were the remarks that were generally made on Mr. Pitt's manifeſto to the Iriſh catholics.

The catholic queſtion certainly furniſhed the miniſter with no unplauſible excuſe for retiring from office, for a time, and he dextrouſly endeavoured to make the grounds of his reſignation the means of his reſtoration to power. He hoped ſtill to retain the confidence of the catholics, and that, having ſo emphatically proved his ſincerity, they would rely upon him for chuſing the proper time for urging their claims with effect. Very few, if any, believed either that the motive aſſigned for the reſignation of the miniſter was the true one, or that he laid his account with being long out of power: his reſignation, of which, indeed, was very generally conſidered to be, in a great meaſure, only nominal. It was now quite apparent, that the country was plunged into a ſituation of difficulty and diſtreſs, from which nothing but a ſpeedy peace could relieve it. It was ſcarcely poſſible that Mr. Pitt and lord Grenville could enter into a negotiation for peace with Buonaparte, either conſiſtently with their own pride, of which, indeed, particularly lord Grenville, they were in the habit of boaſting, or with any reaſonable proſpect of ſucceſs. The miniſter, therefore, it was underſtood, availed himſelf of the firſt loop-hole that preſented itſelf, for making a temporary retreat.

In the mean time, an adminiſtration, formed of grateful and pliant friends, would be ſubmiſſive to his will, and even deſirous of his advice. Though the principal actor had now withdrawn behind the curtain, he would ſtill play the part of a prompter, and thoſe whom he had ſubſtituted in his ſtead, would ſpeak and act as he directed. But whatever were in reality the miniſter's views, with reſpect to the retention, or the return to power, it was almoſt univerſally held to be clear, that the event of his reſignation could not have been produced by the queſtion of catholic emancipation. They were bound, it was ſaid, to thoſe who had approved of their conduct, and by their own honour, not to deſert, voluntarily, the public ſervice, at a time of ſuch extreme and imminent danger, and at a time when any ſuppoſed difficulties with the catholics, did not preſs them. The promiſe given, or inſinuated, was not claimed. No degree of diſquietude appeared on the ſubject.

That the old adminiſtration expected, by and by, to be re-eſtabliſhed was rendered credible, in the public opinion, by the circumſtance, that Mr. Dundas* alſo reſigned his numerous offices. The other members of the cabinet, who went out of office with Mr. Pitt, were the earl

* Mr. Dundas was generally, though by no means with perfect juſtice, conſidered as the Rædérer of Great Britain. This Rædérer, it is generally known, is a French lawyer, a man of great abilities, verſatility, and addreſs, and ever willing to lend his aid, as in fact he did, to every conſtitution and every government in France, from the conſtituent aſſembly to the reign of Buonaparte.

Spencer,

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Spencer, lord Grenville, and Mr. Windham; other inferior arrangements took place soon after. An event, so important as that of the retirement of these ministers, at such a crisis, naturally demanded the attention of parliament. In the house of peers, on February 10, the order of the day being read, for taking into consideration a motion by lord Darnley, for an inquiry into part of the conduct of his majesty's ministers,

The earl of Carlisle entreated the noble lord not to press the discussion of his motion at the present moment. Not only, in his opinion, might such a discussion appear premature; but, what came more home to his feelings, it might be deemed ungenerous and unmanly, to bring forward any charge against the conduct of ministers, while they were placed in a situation, in which it might be embarrassing to them to enter on their defence. Many of them, it was supposed, were retiring from office: and the grounds on which their withdrawing was accounted for, added considerably to the dangers and difficulties to which the interests and safety of the empire were exposed. He more particularly alluded to the question of the emancipation of the Irish Roman catholics, for which the faith of government had, in some degree, been pledged. However he might lament the decision that had taken place on that very delicate subject, he wished that any discussion of it might be abstained from, for the present. In what he had said, to dissuade the noble lord from persisting in his motion, he was very far, indeed, from being influenced by any desire to give his countenance and support to the new administration that was about to be formed. The present most alarming situation of the empire called for the ablest heads and hands to direct and administer its affairs: and could any expectation be rationally entertained of effecting our salvation, by the exertion of such a rickety administration as that which was now supposed to be undertaking the helm of state? Hitherto, a hope, at least, was held out by the late administration, that something would be done in favour of the catholics of Ireland. To that the national honour had been pledged: and, if that hope was now to be suddenly extinguished, what could be expected to ensue, but all the horrors and mischiefs to which men could be instigated by complete despair?

Lord Grenville conjured their lordships neither to yield to cautelous despondence, nor to agitate questions, on which they were not yet in a situation to form a proper judgement, and the premature discussion of which must be productive of infinite mischief. Opportunities would yet occur, when these subjects might be canvassed with safety. It was painful, he said, to speak of himself; but this was a duty to which he was called, both by a due regard to his own character, and by a becoming respect to their lordships. Sometime ago, lord Spencer, lord Chatham, and himself, together with several of his majesty's servants, in the house of commons, thought it expedient that the benefits of the union should be rendered as great and as extensive as possible, by the removal of certain disabilities under which a great portion of the inhabitants of Ireland now laboured. Imagining that this measure could be effectual,

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effectual only by coming from the executive government, they propoſed it to thoſe who directed his majeſty's councils. It was not deemed eligible, and they were unable to prevail. Their opinion of its policy remaining unaltered; and ſtill thinking that that meaſure, and that alone, could eſtabliſh the tranquillity and proſperity of the empire, on a permanent baſis, they conſidered themſelves as bound to retire. Accordingly they tendered to his majeſty the reſignation of their ſeveral employments, and he was graciouſly pleaſed to diſpenſe with their ſervices. Thus, he ſaid, they only held their offices till their ſucceſſors were appointed. The period, during which he and his colleagues had been in office, had been critical beyond example; and the country had been threatened with greater dangers than any to which it had been before expoſed. The conſtitution, however, was ſtill entire, and the nation continued to be independent and powerful, while many of thoſe around it had been ſtripped of every thing that was valuable, and reduced to the moſt abject ſervitude. It was his conſolation, as well as that of all his colleagues, to reflect how much their ſervices had contributed to the eſcape which this country had made from the evils that threatened it. It was their conſolation to know that the ſame vigorous line of conduct would ſtill be purſued. Though they had retired from office, no change of meaſures would take place: but the ſyſtem which had already proved ſo ſalutary would ſtill be acted upon by their ſucceſſors; and, to whom, while they continued to act in a firm, reſolute, and manly manner, they were determined to give their ſteady ſupport. Lord Spencer moſt cordially and completely acquieſced in the declarations and aſſurances that had been given by his noble friend lord Grenville. The earl of Chatham was abſent through indiſpoſition. The earl of Darnley was encouraged to perſiſt in his motion by the earl of Fife, who, ſpeaking of the change of miniſters, ſaid, that, "If it was a trick, nothing could have been ſo wickedly adviſed: and, if real, nothing more ludicrous." He had ſeen too much of inquiries both in that and the other houſe of parliament, to augur a great deal from that which was now propoſed: but much would be gained, if they could prevent in future the waſte of the public treaſure on fruitleſs expeditions, extravagant embaſſies, and ſubſidies to foreign princes. But lord Romney, and the earl of Moira, having joined in the earneſt recommendation and entreaty that had been made by the earl of Carliſle, the earl of Darnley was induced to poſtpone his motion to Friday, the 20th of March: for which day their lordſhips were ordered to be ſummoned.

The earl of Radnor now roſe, and, having obſerved, that, at the preſent awful criſis, the houſe could not be too fully attended when the noble earl's motion ſhould be brought forward, moved, "That the houſe be called over on Friday the 20th. A ſhort debate enſued, in which there was an intereſting digreſſion to what was uppermoſt in every mind, the alleged ground, on which the leading members of adminiſtration had given up their offices. Lord Grenville hoped that his noble friend would not perſiſt in a motion, calculated to create alarm and

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and dismay throughout the country. Lord Mulgrave expressed his earnest and anxious wishes to the same effect; since the motion tended to throw an air of greater solemnity on the occasion than it required. The earl of Clare deprecated the idea of a call, as well as a premature discussion of a subject which had been more than once alluded to, and which was of so extremely delicate a nature, and, at the same times, of such magnitude, that it ought not even to have been alluded to before it came regularly under consideration. Before that delicate subject should be brought under discussion, he would advise noble lords to take advantage of the union that had recently taken place, and make use of the opportunity it presented, of enabling them to make themselves well informed of the nature and character of Ireland, with which they seemed to be, as yet, but slightly acquainted. A greater heap of combustibles than Ireland consisted of, could not be found. Catholic emancipation, in that country, had already been found to mean rebellion. In fact, ninety-nine Roman catholics out of a hundred did not care a single jot about that which was the real point in question. But there were many who understood emancipation to mean the abolition of tythes, and a more equal division of property. The Irish peasants, for instance, conceived that when emancipation should be granted, every one of them was to have his tythes taken off, and to have an allotment of ten acres of land. In short, so various were their opinions on that great question, and so violent their passions, that he could not but deprecate the premature diffusion of loose insinuations on the subject among them, and thus rashly and inconsiderately light up a flame, which nothing but deluges of blood could possibly extinguish. Lord Radnor's motion was also opposed by the earl of Westmoreland, the duke of Athol, and lord Berrington. It was, on the other hand, strenuously supported by the earl of Moira, and very zealously by lord Holland. Lord Moira returned his warmest thanks to the noble earl, Radnor, for persisting in his motion for a call of the house. It was essentially necessary, and must tend to convince the people, that that house was not unmindful of their affairs: but that they were determined to do their duty, and look in the face the danger that threatened the country. On the question being put, the motion was rejected. Contents, 23 — Not contents, 54.

On the same day, February 10th, in the house of commons, the contents of a letter from Mr. Addington, the speaker, were communicated to the house, by the principal clerk, Mr. Leg. In that letter, Mr. Addington made a tender of his resignation of the office of their speaker, with the reason of that resignation; which was his majesty's declared intention of appointing him to a public situation incompatible with that which he had the honour to hold in the house of commons. "He was unable to express those sentiments of respect, gratitude, and regret, with which he was inspired. He was sustained, however, by the consideration, that, on this occasion, he was actuated by the same principle of public duty which had ever influenced his conduct, and from which he boasted he should never deviate." On this, Mr. Pitt arose

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for the purpoſe of ſaying, that he had his majeſty's command to inform the houſe, that it was his majeſty's pleaſure, that they ſhould proceed, in due time, to the election of another ſpeaker: and, that time might be had for conſideration, moved an adjournment of the houſe till to-morrow, which was agreed to. Sir William Pulteney, who ſeconded the motion for an adjournment, roſe for the purpoſe of expreſſing his regret at the loſs the houſe would ſuſtain in the honourable gentleman, who had ſo long and ſo ably preſided in their chair. The eulogium pronounced by this reſpectable baronet, on Mr. Addington, united pointedneſs and energy with the ſimplicity of truth. "I cannot avoid ſaying, that the conduct of our late ſpeaker has been ſuch as muſt have procured him many diſtinguiſhed friends in this houſe, and I am perſuaded not one enemy." Sir William proceeded to make ſome reflections of importance, and ſuited to the occaſion. He expreſſed his hope, that, whoever might ſucceed the late miniſtry, that houſe would direct their whole attention to the ſituation of the country; and that every gentleman would exert himſelf in the firſt inſtance to bring the ſtate out of its preſent danger. In concluſion, he ſaid, "I have a right to ſay ſomething: I am now old, and have ſeen many changes, without a change of principle: I wiſh to ſee that kind of change which I never have ſeen yet; a change, in which perſons of all deſcriptions ſhall act from no other motive than the good of the public, without having any view to their own perſonal intereſts." Throughout the whole of this ſpeech, he was liſtened to with eager attention, and repeated expreſſions of applauſe.

February 11. The houſe proceeded to the election of a ſpeaker. The choice fell on the attorney-general, ſir John Mitford. He was propoſed by lord Hawkeſbury; and his lordſhip's motion was ſeconded and ſupported by Mr. J. H. Browne, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Martin, and others.

February 16. Colonel Fullarton roſe for the purpoſe of moving a vote of thanks to the right honourable Henry Addington, for his faithful and impartial attention to the important duties of his office, whilſt ſpeaker of that houſe. The motion expreſſed, in the ſtrongeſt terms, the approbation, reſpect, and gratitude of the houſe to Mr. Addington, for the proofs which he had uniformly given of attachment to the conſtitution, the ſteadineſs with which he had maintained the dignity and privileges of that houſe, and the ability, integrity, and unremitting attention to parliamentary buſineſs, which had marked the whole of his conduct, during the whole of the period for which he filled the chair of the houſe of commons. It was ſeconded by the honourable Robert Grenville, and carried *nemine contradicente*. The order of the day for the houſe to reſolve itſelf into a committee of ſupply was then read; but, on the motion for the ſpeaker leaving the chair, Mr. Harriſon roſe to oppoſe it. At the moment, he ſaid, when the houſe was called upon to paſs a vote for ſo large a ſum as twenty-eight millions, there was no oſtenſible perſon at the head of affairs, on whom reſponſibility could be fixed, for its uſe and application. It was now evident that Mr. Pitt was no *longer in his former* official ſituation.

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ſtation. It was proper to know who were the perſons that were to direct the energies of the country. Whether they were likely to employ the money intruſted to them on objects of true national utility, or waſte it in idle and fruitleſs expeditions? Whether they were reſolved to purſue the ſame wild ambition which had diſguſted every power, and rendered the whole world hoſtile to us? By granting the ſupplies, under the preſent circumſtances, when miniſters were on the eve of retiring from office, the new men, by whom they were to be ſucceeded, might ſay, that they were under no reſponſibility, as theſe ſupplies were voted under a different adminiſtration. It would, therefore, he thought, be a ſtrange dereliction of their duty, if they ſuffered the motion, under ſuch circumſtances, to paſs; but, if the houſe ſhould be of a different opinion, and the meaſure be adopted, at leaſt they muſt allow conſiſtency to the late adminiſtration: for their laſt act, on their diſmiſſal, would be as truly unconſtitutional as the firſt act of their admiſſion; and it might be truly ſaid, that their entry and their exit were both equally marked by a wound to the conſequence of that houſe, and the conſtitution of the country.—Mr. Pitt, in reply to Mr. Harriſon, ſpoke at conſiderable length. He obſerved, that, when there ariſes a change among his majeſty's miniſters, it muſt be left to his majeſty to determine when the new arrangements ſhould be formed; and it was contrary to the ſpirit of the conſtitution, for the houſe to aſſume any right of determination on a ſubject of that kind. The eſtimates now produced had already, from circumſtances unneceſſary at preſent to be mentioned, been delayed; and, if any farther delay now took place, it would be impoſſible to carry into effect thoſe meaſures which former votes of the houſe had ſanctioned. He felt it his duty farther to ſtate, that, if ſuch a delay now took place, it would be impoſſible for him to *retire from the office he had held* till theſe votes ſhould be paſſed.* Without now detailing circumſtances, it was ſufficient to ſay, that when he had formed his reſolution to retire, he had, at the ſame time, conceived it to be his duty not to reſign his office, till he had taken an opportunity to fix the ſupplies for the year, and to explain that plan which he had in contemplation for the public ſervice. But the propoſed delay had been defended on the principle, that, at this moment, there were no perſons publicly reſponſible for the meaſures of government, and that miniſters might ſcreen themſelves from inquiry, by pretences of particular plans having been formed by a previous adminiſtration, and that, therefore, they were not to be loaded with reſponſibility. In anſwer to this argument, Mr. Pitt obſerved, that though the preſent miniſters were to retire from their official ſituations, he was convinced that they would never be far out of the way, when any inquiry was propoſed to be inſtituted into their conduct. For himſelf, though he had reſigned his official ſtation, he ſhould ever be ready to attend in his place, when any part of his per-

* The reader accuſtomed to the contemplation of grammar, will, no doubt, obſerve that the preſent ſtate of miniſters was ſuch as not to be provided for in the common analogies and conſtruction of the Engliſh language. It might, however, have poſſibly been expreſſed by aoriſts and other tenſes in Greek.

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ſonal conduct came to be conſidered; or when any queſtion involving the intereſts of the nation came to be diſcuſſed. As to the ſuppoſition, that the new miniſters would be under no reſponſibility, becauſe the ſupplies had been voted before they entered on office, it was founded on miſapprehenſion, ſince reſponſibility muſt be neceſſarily veſted in thoſe under whoſe adminiſtration theſe ſupplies were expended. Mr. Harriſon had farther endeavoured to ſupport his objections to the motion, by conſiderations drawn from the character of thoſe who were to enter on power. With regard to this argument, Mr. Pitt ſaid, that, though his majeſty, at this time, had conſidered it to be neceſſary to make choice of men whoſe principles were directly oppoſite to thoſe of his *preſent* miniſters, though theſe men had come into power with the profeſſed reſolution of withdrawing their ſupport from all thoſe meaſures which ſix-ſevenths of the houſe, and nine-tenths of the nation, had ſupported, as neceſſary to the ſecurity of the empire—though they had been in this ſituation; as an independent member of parliament, he ſhould have felt it his duty to be ſilent, and not to have made one effort to withhold the ſupplies. But, what was the language which had been held by the honourable gentleman, in ſupport of the neceſſity of delay? He had called upon theſe very ſix-ſevenths, and theſe nine-tenths, to withhold the ſupplies, not becauſe the meaſures they had ſupported were to be abandoned, but becauſe the ſame meaſures were to be vigorouſly purſued. The objection was, beſides, founded on principles unprecedented in the hiſtory of this country. According to the conſtitution, his majeſty had the ſole right of nominating the miniſters, and the houſe had no right to form any reſolution till their conduct came to be conſidered, and judged of by their acts of their adminiſtration.—There was no call for the interference of the houſe, either from a change of meaſures, or of men. The meaſures likely to be purſued, and to which the retiring miniſters would ſtill give their firm ſupport, were thoſe which the houſe had repeatedly ſanctioned by their votes. Of the men, it was perhaps incompetent for them to ſpeak, becauſe, who the greater part of them were, could not yet be known, except by general rumour.—One individual, however, was known. He had already filled one ſituation, of great eminence and importance, with the moſt diſtinguiſhed ability; and this was the beſt ground of hope, and the ſureſt augur of his ſervices in another exalted ſituation.—On the whole, Mr. Pitt was of opinion, that, in refuſing to go into a committee for the purpoſe of conſidering of the neceſſary ſupplies, the houſe would be queſtioning the propriety of all that they had formerly decided, queſtioning all that was the beſt ground of ſanguine expectation, and queſtioning the exerciſe of the cleareſt prerogative of the crown. He concluded, by expreſſing his conviction, that the houſe would accede to the motion for the ſpeaker's leaving the chair.

Mr. Dundas, after obſerving that it had been ſaid, that the adminiſtration of the country could not be in worſe hands than it was in now, reaſoned thus: if ſo, as the means of carrying on the meaſures of government had been intruſted to that adminiſtration, it was ſtrange, upon that

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that reaſon to ſuppoſe, that ſimilar means ſhould be withheld from their ſucceſſors. That no ſuch propoſition would be acceded to, he relied on the wiſdom and good ſenſe of the houſe, who, he was convinced, would not be diſſuaded by ſuch arguments from now doing their duty in voting the neceſſary ſupplies, eſpecially as they muſt be ſenſible that an inquiry might hereafter be inſtituted into the conduct of his majeſty's retiring miniſters, if ſuch an inquiry ſhould be deemed proper and neceſſary.

Mr. Harriſon's oppoſition to going into a committee of ſupplies, was ſupported by Mr. Weſtern, Mr. Whitbread, Mr. Dent, Mr. Hobhouſe, Mr. Nicholls, and Mr. Sheridan. Mr. Weſtern conſidered the new ſet of miniſters as creatures raiſed from inferior ſituations, under the former miniſtry, into public notice, merely by the patronage of Mr. Pitt; and who entered on office with the avowed reſolution of ſupporting the ſame ſyſtem which had reduced the country to its preſent diſtreſs.—Mr. Whitbread ſpoke with great candour and moderation. It was not his intention, by any means, to intrench on the right of the crown, in the appointment of miniſters. The houſe, however, had a right, if they diſapproved of the meaſures of thoſe appointed, to refuſe the ſupplies. Let the houſe, then, ſee who were the perſons by whom theſe ſupplies were to be expended. Let them hear the new miniſter, in his place, ſtate what his views and principles were, and then let them decide whether he was worthy of their ſupport. He expreſſed his unwillingneſs to ſpeak, at preſent, of the catholic emancipation, reſerving what he had to offer till the queſtion ſhould come to be regularly diſcuſſed. He did not conſider the new ſet of miniſters as likely to be at all inferior to the *former* who were *about to retire*. In point of talents, general economy, and regard to the rights of the people, he conceived that no men could act worſe, while there was a chance that they might do better. At all events, he viewed the diſſolution of the right honourable gentleman's adminiſtration with pleaſure, and thought that it held out a faint proſpect of the return of better times.—Mr. Dent lamented the want of unanimity in the houſe at this difficult period. He had given a right honourable gentleman his confidence. That gentleman had quitted his office, at an awful time, without explanation as to the cauſes. He waited for an explanation. An explanation was neceſſary of this ſudden deſertion of his office, when united wiſdom and vigour were neceſſary to ſave the ſtate from ruin.—Mr. Hobhouſe, after enumerating many of the pernicious conſequences, and condemning every principal feature of the late adminiſtration, aſſigned, as his reaſons for ſupporting the oppoſition to their going, at preſent, into a committee of ſupplies, that the ſucceſſor to the late chancellor of the exchequer, to whom the expenditure of ſuch large ſupplies was to be intruſted, would ſhortly be in his place, and that no miſchief, nor even inconvenience, could ariſe from the delay.—Mr. Nicholls aſſerted, that, after reducing the country to a ſtate of famine and bankruptcy; after having, by their arrogant and impolitic conduct, raiſed againſt us a confederacy of all the ſtates of Europe, miniſters retired from office, ſuggeſting reaſons

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sons for their conduct, which, while they were calculated to acquire popularity for themselves, must necessarily render their sovereign odious to a large portion of his subjects.—Mr. Pitt here called Mr. Nicholls to order, and contended that the honourable gentleman had no right to introduce the name of the sovereign into the debate, much less on an averment wholly destitute of foundation.—Mr. Nicholls said, that he introduced the name of the sovereign by no means disrespectfully, but merely as it was connected with the conduct of ministers. The conduct of the right honourable gentleman gave him deep alarm; and the house owed it to the king, to themselves, and to the country, seriously to pause before they granted the supplies, without having some satisfactory declaration from ministers respecting the manner in which they were to be applied. He was ready to acknowledge that it was the undisputed prerogative of his majesty to name what ministers he thought proper; and, for his part, he was ready to place his confidence in the man named and appointed as minister by his majesty, until, by his declarations and acts, that man should shew himself unworthy of the confidence of the house: but, if it was the prerogative of his majesty to name his ministers, it was the duty of the house to inquire into their intentions, before they proceeded to vote the supplies. The house were told that the new administration were to persevere in the system of their predecessors. To what extent was that system to be carried? Was the country to have no peace until the old government of France was restored?

Mr. Pitt thought it unnecessary, at the present moment, to enter into any explanation respecting the cause of his retiring, as that matter might be the subject of future discussion. He now rose merely to say that the insinuations thrown out by Mr. Nicholls were more than unfounded. That honourable gentleman had been pleased to suppose that he had given a pledge, a *specific pledge*, for the conduct of the new administration. He must, in the first place, deny having given any such pledge; and, in the second place, he must beg leave to say, that no fair and candid man could have so interpreted his expressions. Neither had he ever said, that the new administration was never to make peace until the ancient government of France was restored. The ministers, who were about to retire, had never made such a declaration: on the contrary, they had uniformly disclaimed any such intention.

Mr. Sheridan, observed that the right honourable gentleman had rather squeamishly, in his opinion, denied his having ever given any pledge * for the public conduct of his successors; whilst, in another place, a noble secretary was con-

* The part that Mr. Pitt had to act on this occasion is an instance of the difficulty a minister has to encounter, when he has at once to conform with a popular government, and to consult the interest of the country. Had he believed, or suspected, that the intentions of Mr. Addington were more pacific than his own, would it have been prudent to declare to the enemy, that the vigorous efforts of the war would suffer the smallest relaxation? Mr. Pitt, though he spoke of what was likely (and this he was called on by different members to do) could not give a pledge: If his expectation was called a pledge, he was forced to take shelter in the distinction between a pledge and a specific pledge.

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gratulating his hearers, that a ſimilar ſhare of virtue and talents would be uniformly directed to the ſame objects. But this would not be the caſe. When the two right honourable gentlemen, Meſſrs. Pitt and Dundas, and a noble earl (Spencer) in another place, ſhould be removed, there would certainly be a great defalcation from the vigour and abilities of the cabinet. The reaſoning on this occaſion was of a moſt ſingular deſcription. When the crew of a ſhip was preparing for action, it was uſual, he knew, to clear the decks, by throwing overboard the lumber. But he never heard of ſuch a manœuvre as that of throwing their great guns overboard. It was not uſual, he believed, when a ſhip was to be boarded, for the great cannonades on the quarter deck, loaded with grape ſhot, to be ſent to the ſea, rather than pointed at the enemy. Mr. Sheridan, after more of this play, and other obſervations, ſaid, that if the conduct of the new miniſters was to be the moſt perfect contraſt, in every point to that of their predeceſſors, then, indeed, might they aſpire to, as moſt certainly they would enjoy, the undoubted confidence and eſteem of the nation. But, while more than a doubt was entertained of their principles and opinions, where was the great inconvenience of withholding the ſupplies for a few days, when theſe principles and opinions might be more clearly underſtood?

Mr. Pitt, who, during Mr. Sheridan's ſpeech, was muſing, it would ſeem, on the charge that had been made againſt miniſters, roſe for the purpoſe of explanation, and ſaid, that when he took the liberty of ſtating, that the inſinuations thrown out by an honourable gentleman, that night, were unfounded, his idea was, that he had not ſuggeſted any rumours injurious to his ſovereign. In ſaying this, however, he did not mean to ſay, that the ground aſſigned, by rumour, was not the ground of his reſignation; much leſs did he decline any explanation: though it was a doctrine ſomewhat new, that a man could not, conſiſtently with his duty, reſign a high and reſponſible ſituation without giving all the reaſons which had determined him to do ſo. He ſhould rather leave it, he ſaid, to poſterity to judge of his conduct. Still he had no objection to ſtate the fact: which he did in theſe words, "I, and ſome of my colleagues, did feel it an incumbent duty upon us to propoſe a meaſure, on the part of government, which, under the circumſtances of the union ſo happily effected between the two countries, we thought of great public importance, and neceſſary to complete the benefits likely to reſult from that meaſure: we felt this opinion ſo ſtrongly, that when we met with circumſtances which rendered it impoſſible for us to propoſe it as a meaſure of government, we felt it equally inconſiſtent with our duty and our honour, any longer to remain a part of that government. I beg to have it underſtood to be a meaſure which, if I had remained in government, I muſt have propoſed. What my conduct will be, in a different ſituation, muſt be regulated by a mature and impartial review of all the circumſtances of the caſe."

Mr. Buxton thought that, from the well known character of the new chancellor of the exchequer, there was every reaſon to anticipate a favourable reception to his admi-

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niſtration. He thought it contrary to all probability, that he who had, by his ability and aſſiduity, gained univerſal confidence in his former ſtation, ſhould, in a new ſituation, adopt ſuch principles, or purſue ſuch meaſures, as would forfeit the ſupport of the houſe.

Colonel Addington was unwilling to dwell at any length on the merits of his right honourable relation. But, from the opinion which the houſe entertained of his merits in another capacity, it was not, perhaps, too much to expect, that his future conduct would at leaſt not be much expoſed to cenſure. One ſimple requeſt he would now make, the juſtice of which he was perſuaded would be readily admitted. The requeſt was, that his right honourable relation might not be prejudged: but that, till proofs to the contrary were produced, an expectation might be entertained that he would act in ſuch a manner as to enſure the continuation of that favour, which he had already ſo liberally experienced.

This ſhort addreſs, by colonel Addington, conciliatory, modeſt, plain, and ſenſible, was well adapted to the ſubject on which it was made.

By the very unexpected change of miniſtry, the houſes of parliament, and, to a certain extent, the nation at large was broken up into a variety of new parties, by various opinions and various intereſts: but, principally into the three following.

Firſt, a very conſiderable party, though not ſo conſiderable as it had been, who had always ſet their face againſt the preſent war, and who were more afraid of the growing influence of the crown, than of French fraternization and inſurrections among the people. At the head of this party was Mr. Fox.

Secondly, the authors and abettors of the war, who, after all that the nation had ſuffered, were in reality leſs deſirous of peace, than fearful leaſt an intercourſe ſhould be re-eſtabliſhed between this country and France, which might favour the introduction of democratical principles. But ſuch an intercourſe it was generally ſuſpected, was not the only evil of which they were apprehenſive. In the continuance of the war, the honour, as well as intereſt, of numbers was involved. Even perpetual war was leſs dreaded than the humiliation (after ſuch a ſcene of deluſion, diſappointment, and diſregard to the warnings of their opponents) of making peace. It is needleſs to ſay, that at the head of this was Mr. Pitt.

The third party conſiſted of men who wiſhed to put an end to the war on any reaſonable terms, who could endure to ſee France employed in retrieving her commerce and manufactures, and becoming once again a great commercial rival to Great Britain, rather than that ſhe ſhould be compelled, by the neceſſity of continued military exertion, to maintain and ſtill extend her power and influence farther and farther all around her; and who were of opinion that ſincerity of intention and ſound judgement, without any wonderful powers of eloquence, would ſuffice for all the purpoſe of negotiation, or any meaſure of a wiſe and virtuous government. Of this party there was no head. It was compoſed chiefly of recruits from both the other parties. The centre of their union, or rallying point, was probably that party, already noticed

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in a former volume,* who conſidered public credit as the great bond of national intercourſe, as well as the grand cement and ſupport of individual nations. This they regarded as a vaſt organization, which one country could not violate without violating the whole ſyſtem. They expreſſed their wiſhes that the world, for the good of the whole, ſhould not, for the ſake of any temporary advantage of one nation over another, relapſe into barbariſm, but advance in general and ſimultaneous civilization. They profeſſed a diſpoſition to maintain, not only good faith to neighbouring nations, but ſincere good will; and to maintain and act upon all thoſe liberal ideas, which gave ſo much plauſibility and popularity in the world to the firſt and pureſt declarations of the conſtituent aſſembly of France, before the revolution was contaminated by the impriſonment of the king, and all the concomitant and ſubſequent horrors. Theſe ſentiments were diffuſed by the preſs, throughout France and other parts of Europe, and as it was well enough known that they proceeded from ſome individuals belonging to the ſmall band above mentioned, muſt have produced in ſome degree ſimilar ſentiments of peace and harmony. Theſe then were the three leading parties to whoſe principles and conduct, in the preſent conjuncture, every eye was turned, and who ſhared, in different portions, the favour and confidence of the nation.

In the firſt mentioned party there was a great portion of all that is moſt reſpectable for rank and property in England, and alſo a proportionable ſhare of ability and of eloquence. There is a degree of raſcally ſuſpicion among the low people, that diſpoſes them to believe every one like themſelves, that excludes all belief in generous profeſſions, and even all idea of lofty and liberal ambition, and aſcribes every thing to ſome ſordid and ſelfiſh motive, if ſuch a motive can poſſibly be thought of. So ſtrong, among the lower orders, is this propenſity, that they conſider ſuperior capacity as nearly ſynonimous with fraudulent dexterity. For many years, though even the very vices of Mr. Fox gave the lie to their hypotheſis, they imagined that the grand purpoſe to which he applied the ſuperior vigour of his mind was, to overreach all with whom he might have any dealings, and to practiſe on the follies and weakneſſes of men for the promotion of ſome ſelfiſh end or intereſt. "*Od rotten Charley is as deep as Garrick:*" meaning nothing leſs than that both Fox and Garrick were ſly and ſhrewd ſharpers. The elevation and purity of Mr. Fox's mind was not, for years, underſtood even by thoſe who in rank and education were much above the vulgar. Some ſuſpicions were entertained that he might be induced, by private views, to ſacrifice even great public intereſts. His unrivalled talents were univerſally acknowledged; but there ſtill lurked, in many breaſts, ſomewhat of a ſuſpicion, that his political firmneſs and integrity was not inflexible. The ſenſibility of his heart, the unaſſuming affability, and the ſublime ſimplicity of his manners, the ſteadineſs and warmth of his friendſhips, and the general conſiſtency of his political conduct, which even the heavy

* See vol. xl. anno 1798.

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weight of his India bill did not counterbalance, in the proceſs of time, though that not very ſhort, produced an almoſt univerſal conviction that Fox was not only endowed with the moſt brilliant parts, but alſo a great, an honeſt, and good man. Every one who has been in the habits of attending to the ſentiments of the populace, reſpecting things and perſons, for five-and-twenty years back, will readily recognize the turn of popular and plebeian opinion in favour of Mr. Fox. While, on the other hand, his great political rival, for obvious reaſons, had fallen greatly, and was indeed ſunk very low in popular eſteem and affection.

He had a taſte for art, as well as a capacity for ſcience. Of literature, in which he had made wonderful proficiency, amidſt ſo early, manifold, and continued avocations, he was an excellent judge, and, if circumſtances had admitted, would have been at once a judicious and munificent patron.

It was not Mr. Fox's ſplendid ſpeeches in parliament, his quick perception, his demonſtrative and mathematical reaſoning, that had become at length the principal object of reſpect and admiration, but his juſt views of the nature and conduct proper to be obſerved by Britain in the war on the continent; his advice and warnings on that ſubject, all of them moſt completely fulfilled; the modes he propoſed, by which the great evils that happened would have been prevented: theſe facts, eaſily to be comprehended, eaſily to be remembered, and impoſſible to be rejected from remembrance, yb any act of volition,* ſtamp the character of Mr. Fox with the moſt ſound political wiſdom. His comprehenſive views, and his inventive talents, finding new reſources in new circumſtances and combinations, beyond all doubt, pointed him out as the fitteſt man in Britain to contend with Buonaparte, if hoſtile: while the frankneſs and ſincerity of his diſpoſition rendered him the fitteſt to negotiate with him, if deſirous of peace. So thought many more than what is commonly called his party. But many were afraid, without reaſon, that he would concede too much. And no proſpect was entertained on account of reſiſtance apprehended in a quarter improper to be mentioned, that his appointment to the firſt place in adminiſtration, could be eaſily or ſoon effected.

The ſecond party in the ſtate comprehended, alſo, great talents, great dignity and wealth, and by far greater numbers. The leaders of this party having divided, we ſhall ſpeak only of thoſe who reſigned the principal offices; the remainder amalgamated for the preſent with the third party. Mr. Windham, ſecretary-at-war, was a man of a philoſophical turn, an elegant ſcholar, and a polite gentleman: converſant with buſineſs, but never forgetting the muſes whom he adored, and by whom in return he was beloved. He had, on many ſubjects, a ſingular caſt of thinking, not an unuſual concomitant of original genius. He was, not a little, an enthuſiaſt: and in all his enthuſiaſm, he was both eloquent and ingenious. His great *Roſinante* was French jacobiniſm; which he ſaw

* See Mr. Fox's Letter to the Electors of Weſtminſter, with Obſervations by Robert Adair, Eſq. M. P.—DEBRETT.

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at every turn, and heard in every breeze. He was decided, open, and avowed in all his conduct: and in all his conduct, as far as his intention was concerned, conſiſtent: though his ſubtle mind, habituated to abſtraction, made ſometimes ſuch nice and even whimſical diſtinctions, that a perſon unacquainted with the natural probity of his mind, might have miſtaken him for a Jeſuit. He had conceived as great a reverence for Mr. Burke, as ever an ancient Greek did for Pythagoras. He had imbibed the very ſpirit, and in a good meaſure too, the very manner of Mr. Burke. He wrapped himſelf up, as it were, in his mantle, after his exit from the theatre of this world, as Eliſha did in that of Elijah, when he was tranſlated to heaven.

The earl Spencer, firſt lord of the admiralty, was by no means deficient in the eaſy and becoming eloquence of an accompliſhed gentleman: but, had his eloquence been leſs, it would have ſufficed to explain and juſtify his conduct and his actions. For theſe indeed ſpoke for themſelves. Lord Spencer ſupported adminiſtration not by words, but by deeds.

Lord Grenville, ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, was a man of good natural parts, cultivated by aſſiduous ſtudy, and ſtrengthened by early application to buſineſs. In the duties of his office he was diſtinct, conſtant, and aſſiduous; in public ſpeaking, manly, nervous, perſpicuous, and bold even to ſomewhat aſſuming, unmannerly, and arrogant. This tone, ſo little engaging, was not likely to be attended with any miſchief in an aſſembly where every emotion of liking or diſliking is ſo uſually buſhed under the views of private intereſt. But, in one well known inſtance, it excited in the breaſts of many ſober and diſpaſſionate men an alarm of miſchief being raiſed by it in a foreign country. He ſpoke much of himſelf, and of the virtues and talents of his colleagues. He was in the habit of doing the honours, as it were, of miniſtry to themſelves. His accumulation of places was noticed to his diſadvantage. He was ſuppoſed to be as fond of the emoluments, as he was proud of the pomp of office. In ſhort, lord Grenville went through his public duty well: but not in the moſt gracious and acceptable manner.

Mr. Dundas, treaſurer of the navy, preſident of the Eaſt-India board of control, ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, &c. &c. was not leſs rapacious of places than lord Grenville: but what he gained, not in every inſtance without application and even hard labour, he ſpent freely. From a convivial and ſocial diſpoſition, as much probably as from any principles of chriſtianity, he was "*ready to diſtribute and willing to communicate:*" yet it is, by no means intended to inſinuate, that he was an enemy to religion. It is not, we apprehend, generally known, on this ſide the Tweed, that Mr. Dundas was, in ſome ſort or degree, a clergyman. In the church or kirk of Scotland there is a ſacred order known by the name of preſbyters or elders. It would be difficult to communicate any exact or tolerable idea of the nature of their function, by any thing analogous in the church of England; if it be not pretty near the truth to ſay, that the Scottiſh elder holds a kind of middle ſtation between a churchwarden and a parochial prieſt. His voice, as well as active interference in all that relates to the external order

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and discipline of the church, assimilate him to the former: his office or duty to exhort and admonish the christian brethren to visit, and pray with and for the sick, and to exhibit in his life and manners a pattern of religion to the latter. In the different ecclesiastical courts, the elder sits and votes with the other presbyters, in all matters that come before them, even those of orthodoxy or heterodoxy, and all manner of ecclesiastical doctrine, as well as discipline, not excepted. The character of a Scottish elder bears no distant analogy to a laic brother in a Roman catholic monastery, or to a Mahometan devotee or marabout.

Into this clerical order of elders Mr. Dundas was initiated by due ordination, before he had well attained to his majority. At that period, he was not wholly inattentive, it is said, to the duties of his function: but, as he advanced in life, he confined his attention and attendance to kirk courts, and particularly to the general assembly of the church, which forms the legislative or presiding body of the kirk of Scotland, consisting of the inferior jurisdiction of synods, presbyteries, and kirk sessions. The general assembly, not unlike our house of commons, forms the best theatre and school for the practice of popular eloquence in Scotland. In this school Mr. Dundas, being an elder, exercised and improved his talents for speaking in a popular assembly: while, at the same time, having been admitted a member of the faculty of advocates, he exercised the more confined, technical, and close reasoning of the bar.

Mr. Dundas's family had been for a whole century eminent practitioners in the Scottish law, and for nearly the last fifty years at the head of it.

Before the union, and the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions in 1748, the great Scottish families, united together by various ties, governed Scotland. The government was carried on in the name, and by the authority of the state: but the authority of the state would have been inefficient, without the intervention of the great and leading families. After the abolition of the hereditary jurisdictions, the grand principle of their union or concert was dissolved, and the court of London was the general centre of resort for the solicitation of preferment and favour. English ideas of liberty, and free and bold adventure were gradually introduced. A prosperous and glorious war, in which the Scotch, through the magnanimous policy of the great earl of Chatham, had their full share, was followed by a general effort in Scotland, in arts, sciences, and all manner of enterprise. In such times and circumstances Mr. Dundas received the bias of education: and all his views ultimately centred in England.

All the title deeds of the landed property in Scotland are deposited in a public register at Edinburgh; which forms the certainty and the value of what, in that part of the island, is called heritable security. This circumstance, together with an extensive practice of the law in a narrow country, gives the most eminent lawyers many opportunities of gaining an insight into the affairs of the first classes in Scotland; and by knowing their circumstances, to know also their hopes and fears, their wants and wishes, and in a word, their predominant and ruling pursuits and passions. There was

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no family, or ſucceſſion of lawyers in one family, that enjoyed this advantage in ſo great a degree as that of Arniſton, which is the family of Dundas. The Scotch nobility and gentry, whoſe wealth was not always equal to their taſte for ſhew and parade, and their ſpirit of adventure often outran their income: and as their eſtates were, for the moſt part, entailed, and could not be ſold, they were put in ſequeſtration during the life of the incumbents, under the power of truſtees, for the behoof of the creditors. Now there were none appointed truſtees, in capital concerns, ſo commonly as the lords preſidents of the court of ſeſſion, and others of the family of the Dundaſſes.

Mr. Henry Dundas was well qualified, by nature, to improve thoſe advantages which were thrown in his way by fortune. He had a natural ſhrewdneſs, and manly ſenſe, his external form was advantageous; he was ſocial, convivial, jocular, (though his humour was none of the moſt refined kind,) and a potent drinker. The houſe of Arniſton, which, beſides places and profits of law, poſſeſſed a good eſtate, was always famous for a very hearty hoſpitality. Both there, and at many other places, Mr. Dundas had many opportunities of meeting, and bringing together many perſons of the firſt diſtinction and conſequence, compoſing differences, forming alliances, and, in ſhort, inſinuating himſelf into the privy councils of a very great portion of Scotland.

In the mean time, having been commiſſioned at an early period of life to parliament, his vigorous application to buſineſs, and his faculty for ſpeaking in public, brought him more and more into notice, with different adminiſtrations; to whom he did not ſcruple to lend his aid, but without ever forfeiting his honour, or violating his leading political principles. He was not hampered by any party principles; other than that he leaned much more, like all lawyers, particularly Scottiſh lawyers, to the prerogatives of the crown than the privileges of the people. The grand cement among men, he conſidered to be intereſt. As he himſelf was ever ready to bear a part in any adminiſtration, on this ground, ſo he naturally conceived that others would be influenced by ſimilar motives. His ſyſtem of corruption he was at no manner of pains to conceal, or to palliate. But even his enemies, who ſpoke of him, though without much perſonal ill-will, as a *barefaced dog*, were obliged to confeſs, that, in his impudence, there was a ſpecies of candour, and, in his corruption, a kind of honeſty. His ſtyle of ſpeaking was manly, and, what we conſider as very great merit, perfectly unaffected. His countryman, Alexander Wedderburn, afterwards, lord Loughborough and the earl of Roſſlyn, laboured, with great ſucceſs, to diveſt himſelf of the Scottiſh dialect and accent; but ſtill the effort it coſt him was often preceptible. Mr. Dundas conſidered not *how*, but merely *what* he ſhould expreſs; nor was the uncouth phraſeology, that he now and then made uſe of, the leſs forcible, that it ſometimes obliged his Engliſh hearers to call up their attention, and ſet their mind to work, in order to comprehend his meaning. In ſhort, he made a free and bold uſe of language, Engliſh or Scotch, and ſpoke

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on without interruption, or hesitation, through thick and thin.* It is of more importance to give the character of his manner of arguing or reasoning. From a clearness of conception, there followed in his speeches, even those that could be no other than extemporary, a clearness of arrangement. He quickly perceived the vulnerable parts of the reasonings of his opponents, and there he made, and persevered in his attack. On his own ground, where strongest, he made his stand, without leaving it to follow his adversary into many windings and subterfuges.

The services rendered by Mr. Dundas were neither few nor unimportant: of these we have already had occasion to take notice in the course of this work. His Indian administration has been generally approved. It must be confessed, however, that the extension of our conquests, in the East, is inconsistent with good faith, and tends to sow the seeds of resentment, and to form confederations, that may be formidable. If the assets of the company be increased, their debts and difficulties are also increased: and new and expensive enterprises may be undertaken before these be greatly reduced, if the present spirit of war and subjugation be not changed for a system of greater moderation, prudence, economy, and permanent security. Mr. Dundas was not only fair, liberal, and generous, as above noticed, in the intercourses of private life, but, in his conduct as a minister, towards different classes of men, as the Scottish emigrants; the Scottish clergy; that glorious and important class, on whom our security so much depends, the seamen; and their relations; the French refugees and foreigners in the service of government, and other classes, besides individuals without number. Of letters, except the *letter* of the law, he neither was, nor pretended to be, a patron, admirer, or great judge. His genius, habits, and pursuits, were wholly turned to business and politics. Never did the Muses curtsie so low to power, as when the university of St. Andrew's chose for their chancellor, Mr. Henry Dundas. But if their conduct in this be entitled, on account of its prudence, to approbation, it was a censure on the imprudence of that of their predecessors, (of whom not a few are known and admired in the world of literature and science)

* The Scottish speakers, who feel themselves cramped, by the dread of being caught in the use of their own dialect, doubtless, labour under a prodigious disadvantage. The manly and successful example of Mr. Dundas should break their chains. We may take the present opportunity of observing on subject of style and language in general, that much mischief is done by the voluminous systems of critics and professors of rhetoric. No writer, or speaker, should labour to imitate any other. Every man's style should be as different as his voice, face, and manner. It should be now rough, now smooth, now low, now lofty, according to his subject and conceptions: in a word, it should accord with the variety of nature. Let it only be grammatical, and free from affectation. Were this compendious system of rhetoric duly regarded, there would be a greater and more interesting variety in our new books of entertainment; and the conceptions of philosophical inquirers would be exhibited with greater force and precision. But, though Mr. Dundas's disregard to phraseology and elocution, in his parliamentary exhibitions, is to be excused, if not applauded, the egregious slovenliness of his writings, ungrammatical, sometimes even to the degree of being almost unintelligible, cannot be too severely censured.

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who, on the death of their chancellor, William duke of Cumberland, in 1770, elected, as his ſucceſſor, Thomas earl of Kinnoull, after he had retired from an important and honourable political* life; for no better reaſon, than that he was an eminent patron and pattern of religion, and private, as well as public, virtue; that he inherited all that love and reſpect for learning, which diſtinguiſhed his father, one of the moſt accompliſhed noblemen in the court of George II. and his maternal grandfather, the illuſtrious Robert earl of Oxford; and that he was the worthy repreſentative of one of the nobleſt races in Europe.

The influence of Mr. Dundas, in Scotland, of the natural hiſtory of which, as it were, a ſketch has juſt been given, was more and more increaſed, by the opportunities he had of ſerving his countrymen, by means of his public offices. And there was an action and re-action, between his influence in his native country, and his importance in, and to the Britiſh government. It ſeemed not improper, to ſay ſo much of a Scottiſh advocate, who attained to a greater height of power in his native country, than had ever been poſſeſſed by the dukes of Argyle.

The honourable Mr. William Pitt had been trained up from a child, by his father, the firſt earl of Chatham, as Mr. Fox alſo had been by his father, lord Holland, to qualify himſelf, by all proper talents, and habits of ſtudy, reaſoning, and ſpeaking, and to look forward to ſome future opportunity, of ſhining as an orator and legiſlator. Lord Holland, and lord Chatham, had been rival ſtateſmen; their ſons were deſtined to be alſo rivals: and what was thought to be another remarkable coincidence, the eldeſt ſons of theſe illuſtrious characters, Mr. Stephen Fox, and the preſent lord Chatham, though neither ſtupid nor wrong headed, (particularly Stephen Fox, who is ſaid to have been a man of wit and humour) were inert and ſlothful: but their ſecond ſons, quick, ſprightly, and active. It was a maxim, inculcated by the earl of Chatham, on his favourite ſon, that merit, triumphing over every temporary obſtruction, would in time find its juſt level; and that whoever was in reality the beſt qualified for any office, would, ſooner or later, obtain it. Mr. Pitt, after a courſe of education at home, at Eton, and at Cambridge, during the whole of which his proficiency was greatly diſtinguiſhed amongſt his aſſociates, applied himſelf to the ſtudy of the law, and was called to the bar, where he made ſome appearances that did him the higheſt honour, and formed a preſage of the elevation, to which he might have attained, had he choſen to abide by that profeſſion. It was fortunate for not a few of his fellow ſcholars, or ſtudents, that he was an excellent ſcholar; for the recollection of ſcenes where he received great and juſt applauſe, and of aſſociates, who knew and reſpected his genius, were ever afterwards dear to his remembrance. Had he been a dunce, (for it is poſſible, that a dunce at ſchool, might have riſen to

* There was not any individual who took ſo active a part, and had ſo large a ſhare in preparing, and carrying through, the great and important juriſdiction bill, in 1748, as the earl of Kinnoull, then lord viſcount Dupplin.

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a high and important political ſituation) he would not have been fond of aſſociating, in a ſtate of exhaltation, with young men, who knew, and laughed at him in a ſtate of contempt. It is greatly to the credit, and forms a moſt honourable trait in the character of Mr. Pitt, that he brought a number of his ſchool and college companions, and friends, into ſituations, both highly reſpectable and comfortable. And it is alſo very honourable, for thoſe fortunate young gentlemen, that they acquired and preſerved the friendſhip of ſuch a man as Mr. Pitt. As to this laſt circumſtance, indeed, the merit was not great. For, it is confirmed by uniform experience, that the friendſhips contracted by ſtrong minds are as laſting as thoſe entered into by fools are fluctuating and capricious. Mr. Pitt had not been long at the bar, when he was ſent to parliament by the univerſity of Cambridge. His very firſt ſpeech anſwered the expectations that had been formed of him, though theſe were extravagant. Soon after this, an unuſual jarring of political faction, and perſonal animoſity, inveſted ſo promiſing and popular a youth, (for he then ſtood on very popular ground) and the ſon of lord Chatham, with the offices of chancellor of the exchequer, and firſt lord of the treaſury. His popularity was at that period ſo great, that a declaration of his, which, from any other perſon of his ſtanding, would have given the higheſt diſguſt, was applauded by many as a juſt claim of conſequence due to merit.

His father, lord Chatham, had confidently predicted, that, "if the Britiſh parliament ſhould not, before the cloſe of the eighteenth century be reformed, by itſelf, or, in other words, within, it would be reformed without." Mr. Pitt, conformably to this prediction, declared loudly, at firſt, for a reformation of parliament: but after he had become prime miniſter, he found ſufficient occupation in other objects.

After the termination of a war, expenſive beyond all paſt example, the attention of the miniſter was naturally called to regulations reſpecting finance, commerce, and general induſtry and improvement. The public mind was occupied ſome time by an effort to ſettle a commercial intercourſe with Ireland; a commercial treaty concluded with France; a bill for regulating the affairs of India; and a variety of other deſigns: but, above all, by ſetting apart a million ſterling, annually, for the gradual reduction of the national debt. A ſpirit of innovation, inſurrection, and wild uproar, afterwards known by the barbarous appellation of *Jacobiniſm*, had been brewing in France, ever ſince the return of the French army from the American war, in 1784, and in 1789 it broke out in a general exploſion. The ſpirit of liberty was now too generally allied with that of inſubordination: and Mr. Pitt could plead as he did plead, in excuſe for not bringing forward any plan for parliamentary reform, that to agitate the public mind in ſuch circumſtances, might be followed by the moſt calamitous conſequences. But during the firſt years of his adminiſtration, the tranquillity of France had not been diſturbed: nor did the opponents of Mr. Pitt give him credit for the ſagacity of foreſeeing, as a conſequence of the American revolution,

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ſo ſudden and great a revolution in that great country. They remarked, that amidſt a variety of meaſures, there was not a word of what appeared from his ſpeeches, on his entry into the houſe of commons, to have been neareſt his heart. Time elapſed, but no conjuncture was found auſpicious to the introduction of that great meaſure into parliament. The times, indeed, became every day leſs and leſs ſo. Mr. Pitt had a good excuſe for putting off, if not altogether evading, a parliamentary reform at laſt, but not at firſt: ſo that the verſatility of his conduct, with regard to that point, muſt, in the judgement of the moſt candid, hang as a millſtone about his neck; juſt as that of Mr. Fox, reſpecting India, muſt ever hang as a millſtone about his. Of the propriety, or impropriety, of a parliamentary reform, we ſay nothing. Perhaps it might have been hazarded among ſo temperate a people as the Engliſh, in 1784, or 1787, and perhaps not; but there did not appear at that period to be any reaſon for Mr. Pitt's dereliction of the project.

If young men who undertake the conduct of great affairs want the advantage of experience, that diſadvantage is not unuſually, in ſome meaſure, compenſated by ardent zeal and application, and by a decided, bold, and ingenuous conduct, which gains confidence, conciliates affection, and ſometimes confounds the policy of old and more artful politicians. Such was the character of John, duke of Argyle, who was colonel of a regiment during the war in Flanders, and at the head of affairs in Scotland at the time of the union, when he was no more than twenty-two years of age. Mr. Pitt was indefatigable in application, and wholly ſuperior to the influence of youthful pleaſures; but his character was ſoon diſcovered to be that of a wary, cautious, and artful, rather than that of an open and frank politician. The genius of youth was principally ſeen in the loftineſs of his pretenſions, and a degree of haughtineſs in his manner. He declared, on his firſt ſetting out in life, that he never would accept of any ſubordinate ſtation in government.

Mr. Pitt poſſeſſed a ready command of language, and all the modes and ſubtleties of reaſoning. He was copious even to the brink of verboſity. The ſtyle of his eloquence was chiefly characterized by what rhetoricians call *amplification*. He viewed the arguments of his adverſaries as with the magnifying power of a microſcope; conſidered their principles and projects under a great variety of bearings or relations, and marked where they led to abſurdity and miſchief. On the other hand, in ſetting off his own meaſures, he diſplayed all their benefits, even the moſt remote, and in all his declamations was careful to obſerve the order of a climax. It was characteriſtical of his public ſpeaking, that he made many perſonal reflections, and that he was not unfortunate in ſarcaſm. He was, for the greater part of his miniſtry, even till the folly of our entering or perſevering ſo long in the war with the French had become apparent to all but enthuſiaſts, popular; nevertheleſs he rather overrated, as is indeed very natural to man, the extent of his popularity. It was his continual boaſt, as well as that of his couſin, lord Grenville, that they poſſeſſed the confidence of nine-tenths of the nation. His popularity

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larity derived, no doubt, great support, from the circumstance that he could not be charged with the least tincture of avarice, or any thing mean, sordid, or luxurious. It was greatly to his honour, that his keenest adversaries and enemies could not fix on any other ground of personal reproach in all their squibs and strictures, than that he, as well as Dundas and some others of their party, were somewhat prone to unbend their cares over a hearty but not unsocial, and stupifying glass of wine; which might be well excused, if it was not, instead of being a vice, in statesmen rather a virtue.

In an age so luxurious and corrupt, and in which all great affairs were transacted on so vast and complicated a scale, he was led naturally enough, though most unfortunately, to give the preference to *gold above steel*, and to consider the art of raising the supplies as the grand and almost only qualification of a great minister. His leading principle was to counterbalance and weigh down the accidents of fortune, by a perseverance founded on sources of finance, superior to any that could be commanded by internal adversaries, or foreign enemies.

The great glory of Mr. Pitt's administration was rested by his friends, and, with justice, on his financial abilities and plans, the union with Ireland, and the previous suppression of the Irish rebellion. If the only object had been to consult the interest of the nation in the long run, it would have been better policy to have laid out the annual million in such improvements as should have been thought most conducive to the increase of the national wealth and population. This increase on the one hand, with the rapid decrease in the value of money on the other, would have alleviated the public debt more and more, until, at last, it would have scarcely been felt. Indeed the national debt would have soon been sufficiently lightened, by the depreciation of money alone; but the minister in such critical times was under the necessity, by all means, of supporting public credit, on which our government and national existence solely depended. Commissioners were appointed for buying stock FOR THE PUBLIC from THE PUBLIC. This was, in one view, a political juggle or sophism. It was robbing Peter to pay Paul: taking from one hand to give to the other; with this difference, that there was an expense attending both the collection and distribution of the annual million: but, as it served to support public credit, this establishment of a sinking fund, for the reduction of the national debt, as well as the redemption of the land-tax, must be considered as good policy.

With regard to the great business of the war with the French republic, it would have been more fortunate, and perhaps not, if we had cultivated the friendship of the federalists, to which Brissot was very well inclined; but the plea of defending our allies the Dutch, and of checking encroachments, and the violation of treaties, was at least plausible. Something also was due to humanity suffering so deeply in the persons of the royal and so many other families in France. What would the opponents of the British administration have said, if Mr. Pitt, from a cold and cautious selfishness, had avoided to tender to Louis XVI. or his friends the smallest assistance? The stage of the war in which, in our judgement,

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indgement, the conduct of Mr. Pitt became weak and liable to censure was 1794, when it became sufficiently evident, that individual aggrandizement, not the safety of the French monarchy, was the great object of the greatest of our allies. The fragility of confederacies was proverbial. The first symptoms of this might have been alarming. The end of restoring the monarchy, under certain limitations, was good: the means of attaining it inadequate. Several struggles were carried on in the name of the monarchy, against the republic, but not one general and continued plan, free from all private views, and directed to the attainment of one object. The desultory efforts of the allies served only to discover the loyalists, and point them out to destruction. That this would be the case, after the desertion of Prussia, and the conduct of the imperialists at Valenciennes, might have been foreseen. Our allies on the continent would have done more for repressing the power of the republic, if they had been left to themselves. The conduct of the British government, in stirring up a second coalition, was as impolitic in design as unfortunate in the issue. Opportunities of making peace, more favourable than that juncture at which peace was made, were neglected.

From this character and estimate of the retiring ministers, we may be enabled to appreciate the reasonings for and against the change of ministry. Granting that the old ministers were superior to the new in eloquence, and supposing, not granting, that they were also superior in abilities, yet superior eloquence and superior abilities were a mischief rather than a blessing, if they were unhappily directed.—Much of Mr. Pitt's eloquence and financial abilities might have been spared, if the war had either been shunned, or sooner terminated. It is better to choose the right path, than to shew the greatest activity and address in extrication from a wrong one. We have had different occasions to remark, that the ambition and the honour paid to oratory in the British parliament has grown to the height of puerility; and we have ventured to predict, that long-winded speeches will by and by be in as great discsteem as they are now in vogue. Plain speaking is sufficient for all the purposes of plain dealing. In proportion as measures are good, they are independent of oratory. Orators were banished by the wisest of the ancients from their ideal republics. Truth in proportion as it is simple and certain, and eloquence in proportion as it flows from the heart, appears in a few bold lines of light and shade, and culminates into the aculeated brevity of antithesis. Neither Mr. Addington, nor those who supported him, were deficient in that kind of eloquence, which was necessary to explain and defend upright and plain measures. Chance, not either the virtue or the good sense of the nation, formed a ministry that did not force their way into power by the engine of party, nor talk themselves into consequence by parliamentary rhapsodies, but dutifully standing forth, at the call of their sovereign, at a moment of great danger, appealed to their integrity as their only shield, and to the purity of their intentions as their only motive. Mr. Addington exchanged the speaker's chair, one of the most respectable stations in the state, and which

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which he had filled with comfort, dignity, and the higheſt reputation, for one full of trouble and difficulty, but in which he might be inſtrumental in averting many evils, and bringing about many bleſſings to the nation.

It had become the cuſtom for political management, and great talents for public ſpeaking, to take the lead in public affairs. A miniſtry was now offered to the united kingdoms, in which integrity and plain good ſenſe were to take the lead, and call into their wake the eloquence and the ability of all who choſe to ſupport a ſyſtem of government framed on ſuch principles. There was no reaſon certainly to be ſhy of accepting and ſupporting a miniſter, whoſe abilities, though not ſuppoſed to be tranſcendent, were allowed to be reſpectable, and whoſe probity and honour were diſtinguiſhed.

Upright intentions preclude many of thoſe embarraſſments, in which men of the firſt-rate talents are ſometimes involved by high paſſions and ſelf-confidence. Moral rectitude coincides, in its concluſions, with the profoundeſt political calculations.—*The law of the Lord is perfect, making wiſe the ſimple.* If the imperial parliament and the Britiſh nation be duly convinced of this maxim, what was the work of fortune, may be crowned with a high degree of national proſperity and comfort. It is time now to return from this digreſſion to the committee of ſupplies, where the change of miniſtry was ſo warmly agitated.

Immediately after Mr. Pitt had declared the grounds of his reſignation, as above ſtated, the motion for going into a committee was put, and agreed to, without a diviſion. Supplies for the naval, military, and other ſervice, each head, as uſual, being ſpecified, were voted for ten lunar months. For the ſea ſervice, there was granted a force of 135,000 men, for ten months, including 39,000 marines. The ſecretary-at-war preſented to the committee a brief account of all deſcriptions of troops in the whole empire. The number of regular forces, cavalry and infantry, amounted to 193,187 men. The number of militia, both Britiſh and Iriſh, was 78,046. Of fencibles, both Britiſh and Iriſh, 31,415: ſo that the whole force in the empire, in theſe three deſcriptions of troops, excluſive of the volunteer corps, amounted to 302,648 men. The expenſe of maintaining this force would be £12,940,889. The expenſe of the two countries, being diſtinguiſhed, would ſtand thus: For Great Britain £9,617,033; for Ireland £3,323,856: making together the ſum he had before ſtated.

CHAP.

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CHAP. VIII.

Committee of Supplies.—National Eſtimates.—Ways and Means.—New Taxes.—Summary Review of the State of Great Britain, with reſpect to the Public Revenue and Expenditure at the Commencement of 1801—*And of the general Safety and Proſperity of the Nation.*

THE houſe of commons, having reſolved itſelf into a committee of ways and means, on February 18, 1801; Mr. Pitt, appearing, for the laſt time, in the character of chancellor of the exchequer, produced, as he ſaid was now his duty, the charges for the current year, and the ways and means by which thoſe expenſes were to be defrayed. The order he obſerved, in this complicated buſineſs, was, firſt to particularize the expenſes for which proviſion was to be made by the two countries, in the proportion ſettled by the late meaſure of the union: and, in the next place, thoſe charges which belonged, excluſively, to each kingdom.

The charges of the navy, amounted this year to 15,800,000*l.*; which was an advance of 2,000,000*l.* beyond thoſe of the laſt year. This, he obſerved, was a general charge, a proportion of which was to be paid by Ireland. The army charges, this year, were 9,617,000*l.*: thoſe of the laſt year, 8,820,000*l.* The account would then ſtand thus:

Army charges for 1801	£9,617,000
Extraordinaries for do.	2,500,000
Eſtabliſhment for Ireland	3,78 ,000
Total military charges	£15,902,000

The expenſes of the ordnance eſtabliſhment for the preſent year, would amount to 1,639,000*l.* being an exceſs of a few thouſands beyond thoſe of the former year. Thoſe for Ireland amounted to 299,000*l.*; making a total of 2,757,000*l.*

He had alſo to propoſe a vote of credit, for this country, of 800,000*l.* and 500,000*l.* for Ireland; which, he truſted, would be ſufficient for every emergency; particularly, as in the preſent ſtate of Europe, we were prevented from ſending our ſubſidies to foreign powers. The ſeveral ſums which he had enumerated, and which belonged conjointly to both countries, amounted to 35,587,000*l.*: of this ſum, England was to pay, by agreement, 15-17ths, and Ireland, 2-17ths.

As to deficiencies, the firſt he ſhould notice was, in the income-tax, which had been taken at ſeven millions, but which could not be expected to produce, in either year, more than ſix millions. The diſcount, on the late loan, amounted to 400,000*l.* The deficiency in the malt-duty was 400,000*l.* In the aſſeſſment of 1798, and the income-tax of 1799, 1,350,000. The deficiency in the produce of the conſolidated fund, as calculated to April,

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April, 1801, amounted to no leſs than 1,750,000*l.* It was his determination to provide for every deficiency, and to fund the largeſt poſſible quantity of exchequer-bills, ſo as to leave nothing afloat. To make good theſe deficiencies, and to fund thoſe exchequer-bills, would require a ſum of 6,610,000*l.* which, added to 35,587,000*l.* of charges to be paid by Great Britain, would give a total of 42,197,000*l.* to be divided between the two countries, thus: Great Britain, for its 15-17ths of its joint expenſe, and thoſe charges which belonged to her, would have to defray, in round numbers, 37,870,000*l.*; and the charge falling on Ireland, would be 4,324,000*l.*

Mr. Pitt having ſtated all the ſums requiſite for the ſupplies of the year, and the proportions in which they were to be borne by the two countries, ſubmitted to the committee the

WAYS AND MEANS.

Theſe he ſhewed would ſtand thus:

Taxes on ſugar, malt, and tobacco .	£2,750,000
Lottery	300,000
Income-duty, deducting the intereſt with which it ſtands charged	4,260,000
Duty upon exports and imports	1,250,000
Surplus of the conſolidated fund	3,300,000
To be provided by Ireland	4,324,000
Sum not iſſued for ſubſidies	500,000
Surplus of grants . .	60,000
	£16,744,000

There remained then a ſum of 25,500,000*l.* to be raiſed by way of loan. There was a rivalſhip between two great parties which ſhould take the loan. They had taken it without premium or bonus, except the diſcount on prompt payment. The terms were 125 conſols, valued at 70*l.* 15*s.*—50-15 reduced, value 29*l.* 5*s.*—for every 100*l.*

The firſt tax propoſed, for paying the intereſt of the loan, was an additional duty on tea above 2*s.* 6*d.* per pound, of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*, which he calculated would produce the ſum of 300,000*l.*

The next tax was on the article of paper, the preſent duty on which he propoſed to double: providing an exception, however, in favour of paper-hangings, and glazed paper, uſed in particular manufactures, and allowing a diſcount, to the full amount of the duty, on all paper uſed in the publication of diurnal prints. The produce of this tax he eſtimated at 130,000*l.*

He propoſed that the drawback on the exportation of calicoes be taken off, and that the preſent duty of twopence-halfpenny per yard, be advanced to threepence-halfpenny, which would amount to 155,000*l.* making the total of the excife 586,000*l.*

On the tax on timber, ſtaves, and deals, he propoſed an increaſe of one-third, which increaſe he eſtimated at 95,000*l.*

The export trade of pepper, the whole of which was, in fact, in our hands, he alſo conſidered as a proper article of taxation.

On all exports of every kind he propoſed a tax of ſixpence per pound, which, he calculated, would produce 104,000*l.*; and on all articles conſumed at home a duty of threepence in the pound, which he eſtimated

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eſtimated at 15,000*l.* This increaſe of the import or exports, and home conſumption, might be expected to make up, together, the ſum of 119,000*l.* An addition of twenty-pence per cwt. on ſugar, he expected to produce 166,000*l.* A duty on raiſins would produce 10,000*l.*; and a duty on lead 120,000*l.*

The next tax Mr. Pitt propoſed was, an additional duty on horſes of every deſcription, not excepting even thoſe employed in agriculture: though that on the latter would only be to a ſmall amount. On every horſe employed in agriculture, he propoſed an additional duty of 4*s.* for each, which would produce the ſum of 136,000*l.* On pleaſure-horſes, where only one was kept, an additional duty of 10*s.* for each, which would produce the ſum of 170,000*l.*: making the whole produce of the additional tax on horſes, 306,000*l.*

An increaſe of one-half of the exiſting ſtamp-duty on all bills and notes, he eſtimated at 112,000*l.* To double the preſent duty on all policies of inſurance in ſhipping tranſactions, would produce 145,000*l.*—On all deeds of conveyance of property, which bore, at preſent, a tax of 10*s.* per ſkin, he propoſed to place an additional duty of 3*s.* per ſkin, which would produce 93,000*l.* Total amount of additional ſtamp-duties, 350,000*l.* The next and the laſt ſubject of taxation to which Mr. Pitt called the attention of the houſe was one, he obſerved, in which the revenue was raiſed in a way the moſt ſatisfactory, and the moſt conſiſtent with the intereſts of the people: for it was only a duty on that which individuals found more convenience in, than could be obtained by any other mode they could adopt; and for which they paid, in proportion to the expenſe of any other convenience, very little indeed. By paying to the public, in the article alluded to, individuals paid infinitely leſs than they would be obliged to pay, if they were to take the thing upon themſelves. The duty he meant was that on the poſtage of letters. Various regulations reſpecting diſtances, croſs-road poſts, packets to Ireland, foreign letters, and enclosures in foreign letters, it was eſtimated would produce a revenue of 80,000*l.* With reſpect to the penny-poſt, Mr. Pitt propoſed that the preſent rate ſhould be doubled: that is, that, inſtead of a penny, every letter ſhould, in future, be charged twopence. The produce of this additional penny was eſtimated at 17,000*l.* The whole produce, to be drawn from the new poſt-office regulations, he eſtimated at 150,000*l.*

RECAPITULATION.

Exciſe	£586,000
Cuſtoms	402,000
Horſes	306,000
Stamps	350,000
Poſt-office regulations .	150,000
Tot. amt. of new taxes	£1,794,000

And the ſum to be provided as intereſt of the loan, 1,785,000*l.* or thereabouts.

Mr. Pitt having deſcribed the flouriſhing ſtate, and favourable proſpect of the finances, aſked what had been the permanent effect of our antecedent permanent revenue? and what even now, after ſo much diſadvantage, which was clearly to be attributed to the ſeaſons, which they all knew to have been ſo unfavourable? The amount of our

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permanent taxes exceeded, on the 5th of January laſt, that of January, 1800. January, 1801, might be called the æra of our proſperity as well as trial. At this period, our imports and exports were more than they were in the year 1791. If we looked at the ſtate of the debt, we had abundant conſolation: for, ſtruggling, as we had been, with difficulties, and increaſing a debt, which we could not have avoided, yet, by a rigid and ſcrupulous adherence to the ſyſtem long ſince adopted for the diſcharge of that debt, according to the engagement we had entered into with ourſelves, in the year 1786, we had paid off no leſs a ſum than 52,000,000*l.* of the capital of our debt: a ſum which, but for that engagement, and our ſcrupulous adherence to it, would have been now a burthen to the people of this country. The total amount of our ſinking fund was 5,000,000*l.* annually. Of the burthens impoſed on us by this unexampled war, more than one-half had been employed, not in ſupporting ourſelves, under engagements entered into by ourſelves, but to pay the debts contracted by our anceſtors. In former times, the courſe was, to make compariſons of the revenue of a year of war with that of a year of peace, by way of ſhewing how productive ſome years of war had been; but now the climax was not that of going from a year of war to a year of peace, to ſhew the flouriſhing ſtate of our commerce and revenue: the courſe muſt be that of comparing one year with another; for the war had been attended with a conſtant increaſe of our commerce and revenue: ſo that we were diſtinguiſhed by our proſperity, commerce, and naval ſuperiority, above all the other nations of the world. And it was ſingular, but not more ſingular than true, that very year, though we had ſuffered ſo much, and that recently, from unfavourable ſeaſons, the preſent year, 1800-1801, was the proudeſt that the country had ever known with reſpect to its commerce. It might well be matter of wonder to ſome, though it was not, that, in ſpite of all the alarms, lamentations, and momentary deſpondency, which had been ſo induſtriouſly preſſed on the minds of the people, from circumſtances too well calculated to have that effect, this country ſhould be the only one in Europe, that had, in this great ſtruggle, the memory of which would be dear to the world, preſerved the full benefit of a conſtituton, which was adapted to ſupport the public liberty and private happineſs of a people, who had ſhewn their affection for a ſovereign, that had, at all times, ſhewn for them the feelings of a father. A people which had ſhewn a vigour and a firmneſs, worthy of being guided by the wiſdom of ſuch a parliament. Such was the view, exhibited by Mr. Pitt, of the ſtate of the public, at the cloſe of his own adminiſtration.

The ſeveral reſolutions towards granting a ſupply to his majeſty were agreed to, and, in the form of bills, through the uſual ſtages, paſſed into laws. In the courſe of the different reports and readings of the reſpective bills, ſtrong objections were made to ſeveral of them, as being too oppreſſive to the poor, and even middling ranks of ſociety, or bearing too hard on different purſuits of induſtry. It was eaſier to point out their preſſure, than to remove it by any ſubſtitutes; yet, in a few

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a few inſtances, ſome amendments to certain bills, for the relief of certain claſſes, were propoſed and adopted. On the motion of Mr. Roſe, an amendment was made in the reſolution reſpecting the tax on paper; as the new duty would materially affect the intereſts of the proprietors of newſpapers, who, by former acts, were prevented from raiſing the price of their papers above ſixpence: to the diſcount they already received, in the purchaſe of ſtamps, there was allowed an additional diſcount of four and a half per cent. which would leave them on nearly the ſame footing on which they ſtood before the new tax on paper was impoſed. Hackney coach-horſes were exempted from the new duty; and an exemption was alſo made in favour of farmers employing only two horſes, and of whoſe farms, the annual rent did not exceed 30*l*. It has already been obſerved, that the ſum borrowed by Great Britain, for the ſervice of 1801, was 25,500,000*l*.; but it was neceſſary, for the ſervice of Ireland, to borrow about 2,500,000*l*. for which, of courſe, Ireland was to provide a ſum for the payment of the intereſt: ſo that the whole loan, contracted by the government of the united kingdom, was 28,000,000*l*. In the bill for this loan, there was a clauſe, inſerted in the committee, authorizing the commiſſioners of the treaſury in Ireland to ſet apart certain ſums for the repayment of that part of the loan, which was made for defraying the charges of the eſtabliſhment of Ireland.

Mr. Abbot, in the houſe of commons, February 12, obſerved, that, in conſequence of the union between Great Britain and Ireland, it would be neceſſary to enact many laws, with reference to thoſe which were already in force, with regard to Ireland. He therefore moved, that an humble addreſs might be preſented to his majeſty, praying that he would direct a copy of the ſtatutes of Ireland to be laid before the houſe, which motion was agreed to. On the 21ſt of February, he obſerved, that the public finances of Ireland ſhould be ſubmitted to inveſtigation, in the ſame manner as thoſe of this country, in order that the ſtate of the finance of the empire, at large, might clearly appear before the houſe. For this purpoſe, he had framed ſeveral motions, claſſed under different heads, and made as ſpecific as the nature of the ſubjects appeared to him to require: of which the ſubſtance was, to ſhew the income, the expenditure, the trade, the debts, the arrears, the balances in the hands of the public accountants of Ireland, and the price current of exports and imports: all theſe articles, for the year ending on the 5th of January, 1801, as far as the accounts could be made up or eſtimated. Motions for the papers neceſſary for the inveſtigation of all theſe ſubjects were made and agreed to. Thus the revenue and expenditure of Ireland were brought, like thoſe of England and Scotland, under the eye and control of the imperial parliament. To the uſual committees, one was added, to take into conſideration what additional orders, and what other regulations it might be proper to make relative to the proceedings of the houſe of commons, in conſequence of the union of Great Britain and Ireland, and to report the ſame, with their opinion thereon, from time to time, to the houſe.

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On the 12th of March, the commons went into a committee on the annual Irish duties: when several resolutions for continuing those duties were agreed to. On the 20th of the same month, Mr. Corry, acting as chancellor of the exchequer for Ireland, stated to the house, being in a committee of supply, the sums necessary for the civil service of Ireland. Those for the military department had already been stated. Relying on the confidence of the committee, he should think it unnecessary to enter into details of the particulars for which the sums were required, unless the committee expressed its pleasure that he should do so. It was, however, necessary for him, at present, to state, that, on account of the circumstances of the times, and the dearness of provisions, the grants to those public charities, which had always been the objects of the bounty of the parliament of Ireland, and which, he trusted, the imperial parliament would still continue, were necessarily increased, because the children in the public schools, and the patients in the hospitals, must be fed and taken care of. He then moved a series of resolutions, for the grant of various sums for various purposes; all of which, without opposition or hesitation, were agreed to.*

* As these resolutions are of a nature to illustrate the state of Ireland, and the views of the Irish parliament, at the period of the union, it may be acceptable to the English reader, if we here subjoin them.

	English.	Irish.
For the Foundling Hospital	£.13,846 3 1	£.15,000 0 0
Marine Society	1,846 3 1	2,000 0 0
Hibernian Society for Soldier's Children	3 655 7 9	3,960 0 0
Westmorland Lock Hospital	6,183 13 10	6,699 0 0
Roman Catholic Seminary	7,384 12 4	8,000 0 0
Society for discountenancing Vice	276 18 6	300 0 0
Female Orphan House	461 10 9	500 0 0
House of Industry	15,594 9 3	16,894 0 0
Pratique Dublin Port	966 18 7½	1,047 10 2
Apprehending Offenders	2,307 13 10	2,500 0 0
Civil Buildings	29,538 9 3	32,000 0 0
Criminal Prosecutions	23,076 18 6	25,000 0 0
Printing the Statutes of Ireland	3 477 2 4	3,766 17 6
Printing Gazette	6,485 10 9	7,026 0 0
Treasury Incidents	1,846 3 1	2,000 0 0
For working the Wicklow Gold Mines	923 1 6	1,000 0 0
For the Battle-axe Guards	683 1 6	740 0 0
For Herald's new Cloathing	1,002 9 3	1,086 0 0
Offices for Records	5,538 9 3	6,000 0 0
For Stationary, &c. for Dublin Castle and the Public Offices	18,166 12 10	19,680 9 6
To the Accountant General	313 16 11	340 0 0
To Deputy Accountant-General	221 10 9	240 0 0
To Paymaster of Corn Bounties	738 9 3	800 0 0
To the Examinator of Corn Bounties	184 12 4	200 0 0
To the Inspector-General of Imports and Exports	184 12 4	200 0 0
To the First Clerk to ditto	129 4 7	140 0 0
To the Examinator of Excise	129 4 7	140 0 0
The Linen Bounties	19,938 9 3	21,600 0 0
First Fruits	4,615 7 8	5,000 0 0
Dublin Society	5,070 18 6	5,500 0 0
Paving	9,230 15 5	10,000 0 0
Wide Streets	4,153 16 11	4,500 0 0
Irish Treasury Bills		522,200 0 0

On

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On April 1, the house having resolved itself into a committee of ways and means for Ireland, Mr. Corry, before he entered into a statement of the charges upon Ireland, thought it proper to say a few words about the finances of that country. The principle of the union, which was so much for the interest of both countries, was a principle of complete and entire union of the government of both countries. That principle, as far as it respected the governments, had been carried into full effect. It was no longer an union of the two crowns: it was an union of the sovereignty. But, owing to some circumstances subsisting antecedently to the union, it became necessary, *for a short time*, to administer the finances of the two countries, in a separate manner, and not in that perfect unity, which it was the object of that great measure to which he had alluded, to effect. As, therefore, *at present*, the finances of the two countries were separate, it would be necessary for him to state them in two points of view; both as they affected Ireland separately, and in conjunction with Great Britain. As to the separate charges, the first of these, was, the interest of the national debt, which formed the great article of the separate charge upon Ireland, as the military expense formed almost the whole of her joint charge. With respect to the national debt of Ireland, it would appear, to ears accustomed to the hundreds of millions of this country, to amount only to a small sum. It was at present no more than 26,000,000*l.* It was, however, a burthen of great importance to that country, and had increased most rapidly during the present war. The proportion of the debt of Ireland, at the commencement of the war, was to the debt at present, in the proportion of 1 to 14. Her debt, at that period, was, to that of England, as 1 to 100, now the proportion of the debt of Ireland was, to that of England, as 1 to 10. But, a large part of the debt of Ireland was in 5 per cents. And, if this debt was reduced to 3 per cents. in which a great part of the debt of England consisted, then its proportion would be, as 1 to 8, to the permanent debt of England. The interest of the debt of Ireland was 1,696,000*l.* The next article, of the separate charge of Ireland, was the sum of 622,000*l.* for the compensation for boroughs, which was all that it was thought desirable to raise in one year. The next item was 100,000*l.* for the improvement of inland navigation. These three sums, together, made something more than 2,400,000*l.*; which formed the separate charge that was to be provided by Ireland.

With respect to the separate proportion of the joint charge which Ireland was to bear, a very large part of it, viz. 4,150,000*l.* was for the military expenses. The other part of the joint charge, which was for civil purposes, amounted to above 600,000*l.* making together something more than 4,700,000*l.* exclusive of 300,000*l.* for the vote of credit. This, added to the sum which he had stated as necessary for the separate charge of Ireland, would make the whole amount of the supplies necessary to be provided by Ireland, for the present year, above 7,100,000*l.*

Mr. Corry now stated the ways and means by which he proposed to cover this charge. It was customary in the parliament of Ireland, previous to the union, to grant the supplies from the 25th of March in one

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year, to the 25th of March in the next year. Laſt year the ſame plan was adhered to, and the ſupplies were granted to the uſual period, and proviſion was made accordingly. But, in conſequence of the act of union, the joint charges between the two countries commenced from the 1ſt of January, 1801, and conſequently the ſupplies from that period to the 25th of March, muſt be thrown into the joint eſtimate. It would, therefore, be neceſſary to diſappropriate the balances remaining in the treaſury of Ireland for the period he had mentioned, in order to make them applicable to the current ſervice of the preſent year. The amount of the balances in the treaſury of Ireland, on the 1ſt of of January, 1801, amounted to 1,697,000*l.* beſides 800,000*l.* the balance of the loans. In addition to thoſe, were to be taken into conſideration the revenues of the country, which conſiſted of the ſame leading articles as thoſe of Great Britain, viz. in port-duties, or, in other words, in cuſtoms, which, in Ireland, were termed port-duties; in the inland duties; in the aſſeſſed taxes; and in the revenue ariſing from the poſt-office. The income ariſing from the port-duties, amounted to about 2,500,000*l.*; from ſtamps, about 150,000*l.*; and from the poſt-office, only about 20,000*l.* after defraying the charge of collection. In eſtimating the revenues of the current year, he ſhould form his calculation upon the three quarters of the year up to Chriſtmas laſt; they amounted then to 1,800,000*l.* conſequently he ſhould take their whole produce at 2,400,000*l.* He begged leave here to remark, that, in the revenue received in the three quarters upon which he was calculating, there was not included any produce of the duty upon malt. The reaſon of this muſt be obvious to the committee; the diſtreſs of the country was ſo great, that it became neceſſary to ſtop the making of malt. It is true, that it was permitted for a ſhort time in the month of October; but, thoſe who knew the mode in which the amount of theſe duties were returned muſt know that the officer did not make his return until a month after it was collected, and that a months time was given for its payment; conſequently, the duties which aroſe, during the ſhort period that it was allowed to make malt, did not come into the treaſury until after Chriſtmas, and conſequently did not come within the three quarters upon which he had eſtimated. He would take the produce of this duty at 200,000*l.* which would make the revenue amount to about 2,600,000*l.* It had been uſual, in Ireland, to have one or two lotteries in the courſe of the year; and, as he ſaw no objection to it, he ſhould propoſe one for the preſent year, the produce of which he ſhould take at 150,000*l.* the ſums applicable to the ſervice of the preſent year would then be 5,247,000*l.*

Balance in the treaſury	£1,697,000
Balance of the two loans	800,000
Eſtimated revenue -	2,600,000
Lottery - - - - -	150,000
Making altogether	£5,247,000

From this ſum there was to be a deduction of 230,000*l.* for the loyaliſts; which had not yet been paid, and which it was neceſſary to pay, as ſoon as poſſible, in order to enable thoſe unfortunate perſons to rebuild their houſes, and to reſtore the induſtry of the country. There was alſo

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also a sum of 70,000*l.* to be deducted, paid by Ireland to her forces in the garrisons of Great Britain; which would leave the sum remaining applicable to the service of the year 4,947,000*l.* There was another sum which he had to mention, though it did not form a part of the charge or expenditure of the present year; and that was about half a million of exchequer-bills, or treasury-bills, as they were called in Ireland, because they were calculated in the debt which he had stated, and provided for in the interest. They were, therefore, no charge upon the public this year; except, as they were issued at five per cent. It was also to be observed, that as long as they remained exchequer-bills, there was not the expense of one per cent. for the sinking fund, which would be necessary as soon as they were funded; but, with the exception of this sum, which did not amount to above 10,000*l.* they constituted no part of the charge of the present year. The ways and means being therefore unequal to the supply of the year, it became necessary to borrow the sum of 2,500,000*l.* The committee would thus perceive the manner in which he proposed to cover the supplies of the year.

He should now proceed to state the new taxes; and, in this part of the subject, he should occupy as little of the time of the committee as possible. The sum necessary to be provided, as the interest and charge of the debt, (including the one per cent. for the sinking fund) would amount to 188,000*l.*; but, in providing the taxes, it would be necessary to take into consideration three other items. In consequence of the union, there were to be no duties upon the exports and imports from either country; and, in the arrangement of the duties, there would be a deficiency on the part of Ireland of 60,000*l.* and that sum it would be necessary to make up. There was another small sum which he had to mention, and in which he hoped the committee would concur with him in opinion. It was with respect to a tax upon absentees, which was very small in its amount, not exceeding 8000*l.*; but, as gentlemen were now bound in duty to attend a certain part of the year in this country, it would be absurd to make them liable to a tax, for that which they did in discharge of their duty. It was, therefore, intended to abandon that tax. Another article, by which the revenue of Ireland would be diminished, was the duty on hops, which it was necessary to reduce to the same amount that it was in this country. This would create a deficiency of 75,000*l.* All these sums together would make the sum necessary to be provided for by the taxes, 263,000*l.*

In selecting the new taxes, it was natural for him to look to those of this country, and to rely upon the great experience and authority of the right honourable gentleman by whom they were proposed. It was, besides, desirable, that the taxes should be upon the same articles, if not to the same amount, in the two countries, unless there was some local reason which rendered it improper. These articles were, sugar, tea, the post-office, stamps, policies of insurance, coals, and spirits. As to the article of coals, there was heretofore a duty in this country on coals going to Ireland, of about 10*d.* per ton, producing a revenue of about 17,000*l.* a year. This duty, in consequence of the union, could not now be collected in England; but it was intended to

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collect in Ireland the same duty which had been formerly collected in England; and if the coal trader in Ireland should attempt to make this a pretext to raise the price of the article, it would be impossible for him to avoid detection, and that disgrace which would belong to such dishonesty. He therefore proposed a duty on coals of 10*d.* a ton, which would produce the same sum in that country, that the duty produced in this country, while it existed. Mr. Corry predicted many benefits from the union between Great Britain and Ireland, and concluded with moving his resolutions respecting the new taxes, which were agreed to.

Mr. chancellor Addington rose, and said, that it fell to his lot to propose a lottery in aid of the ways and means for raising the supplies of the year; the profit of which, to the public, would amount to 201,250*l.* A resolution to this purpose was agreed to. April 24, the house having gone into a committee of supply, Mr. Addington presented estimates of supplies for the plantation and other service. The public supplies for those services had been voted for three months up to June next; and a supply for the remaining half year was all that was now to be granted. The accounts, he said, would be found to be nearly the same, as those of the last session, with the exception only of certain grants, about which there would be no difference of opinion. A reduction, however, would be found in the amount of the secret service. In the year 1800, the sum allowed for that service was 159,000*l.* For this year, there was reason to think that no more would be required than 50,000*l.* of which 35,000*l.* had been voted in the late short session. All, therefore, that he now asked, on that head, was 15,000*l.* Thus one of the first appearances of Mr. Addington, in the character of chancellor of the exchequer, presaged a disposition to economy. The resolutions he proposed were agreed to.—On the 20th of May, he brought forward, as had been customary for several years back, a kind of second budget, for the purpose of providing a sum by taxes on printed goods and pepper, which taxes he proposed, for reasons he briefly stated, to abandon. The duty on printed goods had been taken, by the right honourable gentleman who proposed to the house the ways and means for raising the supplies of the year, at 140,000*l.*: that on pepper for exportation, at 92,000*l.*: making together the sum of 232,000*l.* The articles, by new taxes, on which he proposed to make up for that deficiency, were

An additional tax on probates of wills, where the property left amounts to 600*l.* or upwards, increasing gradually as far as property of 100,000*l.* calculated at . .	£120,000
Additional duty on deeds of 2*s.* in addition to 3*s.* imposed in the present session	62,000
Additional duty on ale licences of 10*s.* 6*d.* . .	32,000
Sixpence per pack addition on cards, and 2*s.* 6*d.* per pair on dice, with some regulations to prevent the evasion of those duties	20,000
	£234,000

Resolutions for adopting these, instead of the taxes before proposed, were agreed to.

CHAP.

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CHAP. IX.

Order observed in our Accounts of the Proceedings in Parliament.—Measures for the internal Security and Peace of the Empire.—Martial Law in Ireland.—The Nature, Extent, and lurking Remains of Rebellion in Ireland.—Sel. Committee of the House of Commons, for inquiring into the State of Ireland and the Conduct of certain disaffected Persons in Great Britain.—Report from this Committee taken into Consideration.—Revival of Acts for suspending the Habeas-Corpus Act, and preventing seditious and tumultuous Meetings.—Apology for entering so fully into the Speeches of the Irish Members.—Select Committee of the House of Lords for inquiring into the State of Ireland and other Purposes.—Report of the same.—Reflections thereon.—A Bill of Indemnity for Ireland.

THAT we may be guided in our account of parliamentary proceedings, on so vast a variety of subjects, by some method more satisfactory than the arbitrary, abrupt, and we may say, senseless order of mere time; our plan is, to arrange those proceedings, as far as this may be done easily, into general heads or classes, among which the principal are such as relate to finance, the grand spring of government; to external and internal defence; and to national improvements, civil and political, economical and moral. The poet, who, captivating our imagination, carries us rapidly along with him in his flights of fancy, and lays us down now at Thebes, and now at Athens, is an object of grateful admiration. The mere reporter of debates, as they occur, does, from stupidity, what in the poet is the work of lively and sublime genius: so generally true, it is, that "extremes meet!" But such a plodder, in his transitions violent and disgusting, is very far from either receiving or deserving our thanks. It is not pleasing to be dragged, as through rocks and cataracts, by transitions that do the utmost violence to the imagination. Such a register may be consulted as a dictionary, but not read as a book of entertainment and instruction.

Having already given some account of the proceedings of parliament, respecting finance, a due naval and military force for external defence, and also for preservation from the attacks of that dreadful foe, famine, whether to be considered as an enemy, domestic or foreign, or both, we now proceed to notice the measures of precaution that the legislature thought it proper to adopt for the internal security and peace of the empire: among the principal of which was a bill for continuing the execution of martial law in Ireland. In the house of commons,

March

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March 12, lord Caſtlereagh moved, "That the act for the ſuppreſſion of rebellion in Ireland ſhould be read: which was underſtood to be done with a view to its continuance. The motion was oppoſed by Mr. Sheridan, who conſidered the whole of the queſtion to be: whether, having every proſpect that the recovery of his majeſty might enable them to proceed in a conſtitutional manner, and that they might have a regular communication from the throne, adviſed by reſponſible miniſters, they ought to proceed without ſuch communication, and without ſuch reſponſibility? To juſtify ſuch a meaſure, he ſaid, would require a very ſtrong caſe to be made out; and unleſs ſuch a caſe ſhould be made out, he muſt conſider the bill as one of the moſt indecorous, unconſtitutional, and violent propoſitions ever made in that houſe. He therefore moved that the houſe ſhould adjourn.

Lord Caſtlereagh ſaid, that that was not the firſt queſtion in which the parliament of Great Britain had been called on to take meaſures, with regard to one part of the kingdom, which had not been applicable to that part called England. After the union of England and Scotland it was neceſſary to paſs laws for Scotland, of unuſual ſeverity, and unconſtitutional in their nature. He alluded to the laws for diſarming the Highlanders: which laws were paſſed by a parliament ſtrenuous in the ſupport of the rights of the ſubject. Lord Caſtlereagh, therefore, only called on the houſe to do that for Ireland, which, on a former occaſion, it had done for Scotland. Without a continuance of the ſame ſyſtem of prudence and precaution, with regard to Ireland, that country would be placed in a moſt unfortunate predicament. He had always entertained a firm conviction, that neither the conſtitution, nor the liberties of Ireland, could be preſerved, but by the meaſures adopted for the ſuppreſſion of rebellion. The houſe would ſee in what a ſituation Ireland would be placed, if parliament, from any ſcruples, ſhould withhold its ſanction to a meaſure, on which its ſafety and exiſtence depended. It would have the effect of inſtilling into the government ſuch apprehenſions, that it would be impoſſible for thoſe to whom it was intruſted, to diſcharge their duties to the public in the manner they had hitherto done, under the idea that the local parliament would always give them the means of acting with vigour. As to waiting for a communication from his majeſty, the habeas corpus ſuſpenſion act had been frequently renewed, without either any communication from the crown, or inquiry by a committee, and merely on the idea that the circumſtances of the country remained the ſame as when it firſt paſſed. The ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus in Ireland, in 1799, was without any communication. It was, no doubt, in the power of parliament to go into an inquiry if they thought this neceſſary; but where there were grounds for the houſe to proceed without inquiry, it had never been uſual, nor was it neceſſary to chain it down to the ſuſpenſion of its proceedings, till an inquiry had taken place. His wiſh was to propoſe that this bill ſhould only be continued for a limited time, namely, for three months, in order that parliament might have time to go into an inquiry. Lord Caſtlereagh having

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having clearly ſhewn, that, on the preſent queſtion, there was no neceſſity for either a communication from the throne, or an inquiry by parliament, proceeded to ſtate the reaſons that appeared to him to be concluſive, for the meaſure to be propoſed. From an examination of facts and circumſtances, reſpecting the origin, progreſs, and termination of open rebellion, and the actual ſtate of Ireland, in which there was ſtill a ſecret rebellion; he ſhewed that nothing but the exerciſe of martial-law could give free courſe to juſtice, and ſave the country. Though Jacobiniſm had been put down in the field, it yet continued to afflict the land in a manner not leſs deſtructive to the juriſprudence of the country, but more difficult to be attacked by the king's forces in the field. The whole nature of the remaining diſturbances, in Ireland, was directed firſt againſt the properties and perſons of the well-affected; and, ſecondly, againſt the courſe of juſtice. The houſe would therefore be ſenſible, that unleſs thoſe perſons, who were engaged in acts of rebellion, could be brought ſummarily to trial, the friends of government would be ſubjected to certain deſtruction.

Lord Caſtlereagh did not expect that rebellion would altogether ceaſe to exiſt, during the war. He knew that the ſpirit of rebellion had too many friends in every part of the empire: but he did not, at preſent, propoſe to extend the rebellion act beyond three months. There was a meaſure, which lord Caſtlereagh took the liberty of propoſing, as ſubſidiary to this. There were perſons in cuſtody in Ireland, under the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act. His lordſhip wiſhed to leave them in the hands of the civil power. And, for that purpoſe, he would propoſe, that the act for ſuſpending the habeas corpus be continued, for the ſame period as that for the ſuppreſſion of rebellion.

The continuation of the rebellion act was oppoſed, and Mr. Sheridan's motion for an adjournment, ſupported by ſir Lawrence Parſons, Mr. Grey, Mr. Whitbread, Mr. Bouverie, and Dr. Lawrence. Mr. Sheridan's motion, on the other hand, was oppoſed, and lord Caſtlereagh's ſupported by the honourable Mr. Dennis Browne, ſir George Hill, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Weſterna, Mr. Canning, Mr. French, Mr. Taylor, Mr. Fitzgerald, Mr. J. C. Bereſford, Mr. R. Martin, Mr. Ogle, Mr. Macnaughton, Mr. Somers Cox, Mr. Ogle, and Mr. Lee.

Sir Lawrence Parſons conſidered the meaſure brought forward by lord Caſtlereagh as wholly unneceſſary. Were not the courts of law open, at this time, to try rebels? During the two laſt years, aſſizes had been regularly held throughout Ireland, twice a year, without a ſingle exception. He defied the noble lord to bring one inſtance of its being otherwiſe. He was aſtoniſhed to hear that juries could not diſcharge their duty. In what county had that happened? He knew of no complaint on that topic, but that juries were ſometimes too prompt to condemn. He had a reſpect for the army, and he knew that, in their proper ſtations, they graced their profeſſions. But he would not chuſe to take officers from the horſe-guards, to ſupercede the legal judges of the land. He aſked Mr. Pitt, if he, when he was a barriſter, would have truſted the

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caſe of any of his clients, to be decided by a colonel of the horſeguards? Courts-martial could not aſcertain the difference between innocence and guilt. They had no principles on which to decide, but were, in their deciſions, creatures of mere caprice and accident. If it were ſo eaſy to decide on ſuch queſtions; if there were no ſuch thing as the ſcience of evidence and law, why had we judges? Why one law for England and another for Ireland? It was not pretended that this act helped, in any way, to take the rebels. No: they were in cuſtody; and the pretence was, that no jury would try them. He deſired to know of an inſtance of a jury not being found to try rebels? No one had ever occurred, though it had ſometimes happened, that juries were ſometimes too prompt to do their duty in ſuch caſes. Judges of the law ſhould not be ſent to adminiſter juſtice ſteadily and ſevereiy, but to adminiſter juſtice. They would then be feared and loved. Courts-martial might be feared, but never could be loved. Sir Lawrence called the attention of the houſe to the opinion of a great lawyer, on the means of calming the minds of the Iriſh. He ſpoke of ſir John Davies, the beſt preſent that England ever ſent to Ireland. He was the attorney-general of James I. and he wiſhed that every attorney-general of our day had as much reſpect for the conſtitution, as that great lawyer. He was ſent to Ireland after a rebellion, and he gives an account of the proceedings to quiet the minds of the people. The rebels having been put down, by the king's arms, the adminiſtration of juſtice was reſtored. The judges went the circuits; and moſt ſweet and welcome, ſays ſir John Davies, was this courſe to the common people; and ſo happy and effectual was this policy, that in ſix circuits, held in five years, there was a leſs number of criminals, than in one circuit in England. Sir Lawrence recommended this example to the houſe. Arbitrary meaſures never civilized men. If they could have done ſo, Morocco would have been civilized and happy long ſince. The preſent meaſure was in the ſpirit of a quack. It might heal the ſore, but not correct the habit. He recommended to the houſe, to grace its firſt act towards Ireland, by reſcuing that country from military tyrants. Mr. Grey, too, contended, that the act propoſed, was a ſuſpenſion of all law, and a violation of the conſtitution, without neceſſity. So alſo did Mr. Whitbread. This poſition they reſted chiefly on the evidence that had juſt been given by the honourable baronet, who had juſt delivered his ſentiments on the queſtion before the houſe. Mr. Grey, aſked why it had not been neceſſary to uſe martial law againſt the Whiteboys? Mr. Bouverie did not contend whether martial law was neceſſary in Ireland or not; all he ſhould inſiſt on was, that it was not propoſed in regular ſhape and form. Doctor Lawrence aſked, why, with 100,000 men in Ireland, the number of officers conſtituting a court-martial, was limited to three, when, even in Wales, five were required? Immediately after the rebellion, he obſerved, there was, indeed, a murmur, a general diſmay, ariſing from various cauſes into which he would not then enter, as well as from Jacobinical principles; but the moment

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ment it burſt out, it vaniſhed. The danger was not ſuch now, as rendered the preſent meaſure neceſſary. He ſhould applaud a vigorous government, under ſtrict reſponſibility in dangerous times; but a ſyſtem of the kind now creeping in, and as it were, begging the queſtion, he ſhould always oppoſe.

The neceſſity of martial-law was ſtrenuouſly maintained by all the gentlemen from Ireland, ſir Lawrence Parſons alone excepted. Mr. Dennis Brown referred to the report of the ſecret committee, and the confeſſions of the traitors; and affirmed, that had it not been for martial-law, they ſhould not now ſee Iriſh member in that houſe. He declared, that jurors and witneſſes, had been murdered by the rebels, for acting on trials. He would mention a fact, that would ſhew the ſtate of the country. Many perſons who were loyal and well diſpoſed, had ſubſcribed to ſupport the traitors in priſon. And when he aſked how they could do ſo improper an act? they declare that they were compelled to ſubſcribe, to protect themſelves and families from the partiſans of the traitors. Sir George Hill contended that palliatives were unfit for Ireland. The inſtance of ſir John Davies, quoted by the honourable baronet, was not applicable to the preſent ſtate of Ireland. The mode of conduct then purſued was adopted long after a rebellion ſubdued; but the preſent meaſure, in the midſt of rebellion ſtill exiſting. Sir George corroborated the ſtatements of Mr. Dennis Browne, as to the danger of jurors and witneſſes. Mr. Pitt paid many compliments to the talents of lord Caſtlereagh, and his extenſive knowledge of the true intereſts of the Britiſh empire. He had given proof to-night, that there were among us, talents of the firſt rate; which talents, *whether in or out of office*,* would always be ready for exertion, as occaſion might require, againſt the moſt bitter enemy of human happineſs, that ever yet appered in this world of Jacobiniſm. The crime of rebellion did not depend on five or ſix, or fifty thouſand men aſſembled together. "If, ſaid he, there be a ſyſtematic plan formed for the deſtruction of a country, and there be a concert of men, whether three, or five, or any other number, to accompliſh that end, whether by burglary, or robbery, or plunder, or any ſpecies of criminality whatever, or in furtherance of that plan, to deter the peaceable and loyal part of the community from being true to their allegiance, for the purpoſe of executing, with more facility their martial-law, as a ſyſtem, either of terror, or any other courſe, to rob triumphantly, or take away by ſtealth. Whether it be, the "peſtilence, that walketh in darkneſs, or the ſword that waſteth at noon day. If its character be rebellion, rebellion be it called. If its effect be to defeat the purpoſes of civil proceſs, whether by the dagger of the aſſaſſin, or with the parade, pomp, and circumſtance of glorious war, it is ſtill rebellion: whether flagitious, bold, and open, or ſly, inſinuating, and crafty. Whether with much or little bloodſhed, may be points that may conſtitute a difference in the degree: but which is moſt deteſtable, is a thing not worth debating."

* Theſe words rouſed attention, and were made the ſubject of ſeveral comments.

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On the whole, as the meaſure propoſed was approved by a great multitude of the people of Ireland, of the peaceable claſſes; as that ſyſtem of military power was not intended to overwhelm the civil power, but to protect it from being overwhelmed, he was inclined to hope that the houſe would adopt it.

Mr. Weſterna thought that martial law was neceſſary in the preſent ſtate of Ireland. He hoped and truſted that the members from that country would be conſidered as ſo many witneſſes who would not miſrepreſent it.

Mr. Whitbread had called on the houſe to recollect that it was for the firſt time engaged in deliberation on the affairs of Ireland, ſince the incorporation of its legiſlature with that of this country, and to be cautious of beginning with a meaſure ſo vigorous as this.

Mr. Canning, on the other hand, called on the houſe to recollect well before they repealed what the individual parliament of Ireland had done for its ſafety; and to be cautious, leſt, in ſpeculating on the intereſts of Ireland, they ſhould betray their own.

Mr. Trench obſerved, that, if the rebellion bill was ſuffered to expire, the offenders now in cuſtody would be ſet at large; and that, though it ſhould be renewed in the courſe of a few days, after ſuch expiration, irremediable miſchief might be done in the interval. The courts of law were, indeed, open, as had been ſtated by the honourable baronet; but then, he contended, that juries dared not to do their duty, and that witneſſes were afraid to come forward. Sir Lawrence had called for inſtances: they were melancholy and notorious. He knew one caſe, in which the conduct of a jury was ſo flagrant, that the judge ordered their names to be poſted up for public reprobation.

Mr. Taylor inſiſted that the laws neither were nor could be executed in Ireland.

Mr. Fitzgerald ſaid, that the common law of England, which required no eulogium, was founded on the principle, that every witneſs would tell the truth, and the judge and jury do what was right. Such was, in fact, their conduct: and why? becauſe they found they did ſo with ſafety, in the face of their country, without any danger to their lives, or fortune; but, by the ingeniouſneſs of the men who conducted the rebellion in Ireland, for many of them were lawyers, that which ſhould be the life, was turned to the deſtruction of the conſtitution. The vicinage, which was originally for the protection of the juror, had become the ſource of his ruin.

Mr. Beresford, as a proof of the impartial conduct of courts-martial, obſerved, that the rebels of Wexford had deſired to be tried by theſe, and not by the civil law. The juries dared not give honeſt verdicts: A jury, at the aſſizes of Tyrone, told the judge, that they would find a man guilty, who had been tried by them for a capital offence, on the cleareſt evidence, if he would agree to inflict a leſs puniſhment than death; but the judge not complying, they brought in a verdict of acquital. Inſtances of this kind were numerous; and the ſtate of the country was now exactly the ſame as when the facts to which he alluded took place. In fact, ſuch was the perſecution carried on againſt thoſe who ſought to maintain

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tain the law, and carry it into effect, that a person, suspected of giving information to government, had been followed from Ireland, and murdered in London.

Mr. Ogle perfectly coincided with Lord Castlereagh in his account of the state of Ireland. He wished the rebellion in Wexford had not been mentioned. However, as it had been adverted to, he would state its system and principles. It was, to put every loyal man, and every protestant to death. It was, to pull down church and state, and, in concert with France, to build a papal hierarchy in their place; and to effect the separation of Ireland from England. The priests were their generals, and inspired them with every abomination. One assemblage of 185, protestant men, women, and children, were burned in a barn; 500 were massacred on Vinegar-hill; and, the day before Wexford was relieved, a great number were slaughtered on the bridge of that place. Many of them were his friends, and his heart bled for them. But the honourable baronet had said that all was quiet now. He wished the honourable baronet would take a ride through the county of Wexford and see. Perhaps the honourable baronet, after the speech he had made that night, might do so in safety: but he was certain that he, himself, could not. So far was the country from being quiet, that not even the mails could travel in security. They were constantly attacked: and that, not merely for the purpose of robbery, but murder. Nothing but martial law could save Ireland. The rebels, at that moment, did not hesitate to say, that they counted on a French invasion, and that they were ready to co-operate with it.

Mr. Macnaughton observed, that, when sir John Davies wrote his account of Ireland, there was no such thing as jacobinism in Ireland. Without martial law, the perpetrators of the most enormous crimes in the disturbed counties of Antrim, Wexford, Wicklow, and Tyrone, could not be punished.

Mr. Somers Cox said, that he had resided a short time in Ireland after the rebellion, and was fully convinced, from his experience, during that visit, that if the state of the country was the same now, as then, it was impossible that there could be any order or security, without martial law.

Mr. Martin observed, that it was evident from the statements of both sides of the house, that there did not exist any tribunals to which rebels could be properly brought, except courts martial, or other tribunals similarly constituted. Mr. Toler, now chief justice of the common pleas, when attorney-general, assured him; that such was the avidity of a jury for condemnation, that, in one morning, they convicted thirty persons, whom he was obliged to recommend to mercy. The rebel himself, therefore, he should think, would exclaim against a tribunal where he had such little chance of lenity. A tribunal of the kind, now proposed to be continued, was only a commission to take evidence, and its sentence was afterwards revised by the lord lieutenant. Mr. Martin deprecated the introduction of the catholics into a debate, at a time when their claim was not before the house. It had been stated that the priests were the generals, and that the

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the rebellion was a catholic rebellion. Mr. Martin, on the contrary, contended that it was a proteſtant rebellion, and that the principal leaders, in the diſturbed counties, were all proteſtants.

Mr. Ogle, in explanation, ſaid, that he did not allude to the body of catholics, but merely to the nature and ſtate of the rebellion in one particular county.

Mr. Lee contended that Ireland was not in a ſtate to be governed only by a jury. Of that ſtate, he would not make aſſertions, but give proofs. He referred to the journals of the Iriſh houſe of commons, now in that houſe. In them would be found an act for making the information of a witneſs, murdered before trial, evidence to go to a jury. This was a meaſure rendered neceſſary by the frequency of caſes, where men where murdered to prevent their giving evidence againſt rebels. He alſo referred them to the act, by which a number of perſons conſpiring to murder, were held equally criminal as if they had carried their intention into effect. There was alſo another act to which he would refer the houſe: for the reſtraints laid by the Iriſh parliament were progreſſive, and it was only as increaſing ſeverity that it was exerciſed. The act alluded to, was that by which a man, found from home between ſun ſet and ſun riſe, and not giving a ſatisfactory account of himſelf, might be ſent, by the magiſtrates, to ſerve in the navy or army. This was rendered neceſſary by the mode in which rebellion covered the land. The mode was this: ten men met at night, and ſwore each other to ſwear to their cauſe ten men more. Each of theſe ten was ſworn to ſwear a like number, and ſo on: ſo that ſuch a ſyſtem might be ſoon diffuſed over any country, however populous or extenſive. It was impoſſible, therefore, for the Iriſh parliament, to have proceeded more mildly or gently than it had done under ſuch circumſtances. The rebellion of Ireland was different from every other of which hiſtory furniſhed an example. It was a rebellion on the principle of the Agrarian law, ſuperinduced upon poverty: in which every man was taught that he had an intereſt, and that, in the event of its ſucceſs, he muſt get wealth and property. So far was this principle carried, that theſe nocturnal rebels often met and divided the ſpoil before the battle was fought. There was one inſtance, in which, after having parcelled out the eſtate of a very rich gentleman, they quarrelled about the manſion houſe. Mr. Lee then proceeded to vindicate the forms and proceeding of courts martial. A lawyer, he ſaid, always preſided, at leaſt ſince the rebellion, for during the rebellion no lawyer was to be had, and took care that due regard ſhould be had to the rules of evidence. The meaſure of martial law was not brought forward by the executive government: but the property of the country demanded it. In fact, the lord-lieutenant was almoſt ſtormed before he yielded to the ſolicitations of the country gentlemen. He entreated gentlemen, if they wanted a ſubject on which to exerciſe their great abilities, not to make a ſtalking horſe of Ireland: not to draw that poor country in as a poſtſcript to their meaſures. Loyalty did not ſuperabound, at any time, in that part

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part of the united kingdom; but still less now, when twenty-eight peers, and a hundred of its first commoners, were drawn away from it. He trusted, therefore, that even the gentlemen, who opposed the measure proposed, would not drive the house to a division.

Mr. Horne Tooke thought it would not be impossible to reconcile both sides of the house. He believed martial force was necessary for Ireland: but there was a great difference between martial force, and martial law. There were only four counties stated to be in rebellion, or likely to be so. Now it was the custom of this country, when any part was disturbed, and that a fair trial could not be had there, to bring the delinquents to trial in the sound parts, where the juries were unprejudiced, and the witnesses protected. The motion of adjournment was negatived, and lord Castlereagh's motion agreed to without a division. Lord Castlereagh then brought up the bill, which was read a first time.

It was not to be wondered at, that English gentlemen, but little acquainted with the real state of Ireland, and in the habits of canvassing and questioning the measures of government, should set themselves against the farther continuance of martial law in Ireland. But it was matter of astonishment, and this was strongly expressed by several of the Irish members, that any gentleman from Ireland should come forward with so decided an opposition to a measure which every one must feel to be necessary.

That a gentleman of such intelligence, probity, and patriotism, as sir Lawrence Parsons should maintain so singular and hazardous an opinion, in opposition to the consentient voice of all his brethren from Ireland, in the house of commons, may be considered as a curious proof how much even men of talents and virtue may be governed, in particular cases, by their prejudices, and how apt men are to mistake their own circle of acquaintance, united generally by a sympathy of sentiments; for the nation at large, and the wide world. The same question, concerning the necessity of continuing Ireland under the authority of martial law, was farther discussed in the other stages of this bill, and also those of the other, closely connected therewith, namely, "A bill for continuing for a time to be limited, the suspension of the habeas corpus act, in Ireland." Leave having been given to bring in this bill into the house of commons, on the 13th of March, it was read the for first time on the 16th.

On this occasion, the order of the day being read, sir John Parnell, after declaring that nothing could be farther from his intentions than to embarrass the measures of government; yet could not suffer the bill to be again read, without some remarks. It could not be denied that there existed, in the present state of Ireland, the most pressing necessity for continuing that country under the authority of martial law. In some counties the disorder was open and apparent; in others, the tranquillity that prevailed was suspicious and uncertain. In none could it be trusted, that the mischiefs which had preceded the rebellion would not be renewed, as soon as the evil intentioned should

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find themſelves free from all reſtraint but that of the trial by jury. But why ſhould even martial law be adminiſtered in Ireland, in a manner ſo much more arbitrary than that in which it was exerciſed in the ordinary diſcipline of the Britiſh navy? Arbitrary puniſhment and reſtraint neceſſarily tended to perpetuate the very evils againſt which they might be employed as a temporary ſafeguard. He ſhould be glad to ſee the preſent bill rendered as little exceptionable as might be, before it ſhould be offered for a third reading.

Sir Lawrence Parſons contended, ſtill, that in order to juſtify the continuance of martial law in Ireland, it ſhould have been demonſtrated to the houſe, beyond the poſſibility of contradiction, that the trial by jury was utterly unequal to the ordinary protection of the lives and properties of the people, as well as to the ſupport of the juſt authority of the government. But Ireland, he ſaid, was not at all in that ſtate of inteſtine war which could alone juſtify ſuch a meaſure as was propoſed to them. He deſcribed the careleſs tranquillity that prevailed in his county, and, as he had been informed, in other counties, and among others, lord Caſtlereagh's county, as the noble lord himſelf could teſtify. As the noble lord and his friends had not made out ſo ſtrong a caſe, as was neceſſary for the adoption of martial law, he would give his hearty negative againſt the ſecond reading of the bill before them.

Mr. W. B. Ponſonby did apprehend that Ireland was in a conſiderable ſtate of diſcontent: but not that there was any immediate danger. It therefore appeared to him, on a comprehenſive view of all circumſtances, to be the wiſeſt policy that this country could adopt, to treat the people of Ireland like the people of England.

Mr. M. A. Taylor, on the ſecond reading of the Iriſh martial law bill, as well as on the motion for the ſecond reading of the ſuſpenſion of habeas, then before the houſe, ſaid that the martial law bill granted a power of inflicting torture; that inſtances of torture had been frequent under the adminiſtration of both lord Camden and that of lord Cornwallis, and that he intended to move an amendment for aboliſhing that power.

Lord Caſtlereagh, in reply to Mr. Taylor, and for his information, not from any perſonal diſreſpect, ſaid that ſuch a charge was wholly and abſolutely unfounded. Many cruelties had indeed ariſen out of the warfare which took place between the rebels and the loyal ſubjects of his majeſty; the juſtification of which had been reſted on the principle of ſelf-defence. But, as an argument in favour of the bill now before the houſe, he would obſerve, that, from the moment it had paſſed in Ireland, that ſpecies of individual violence had ſubſided. The preſent bill was, therefore, calculated to prevent ſuch cruel acts from being repeated by individuals, from an apprehenſion of their own preſervation. For, by this, individuals were ſatisfied that they had protection under the authority of government; and therefore that there was no neceſſity for them to take their protection into their own hands, which they would do, and which they would be driven to do, unleſs government were armed with this kind of authority. For the rebels had

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had a ſyſtematic and regulated plan of procedure. It was an organized conſpiracy, not only againſt the ſtate itſelf, but alſo againſt the perſon and property of every individual who adhered to government. If gentlemen wanted inſtances of the organization of the rebellion, he would refer them to places in which courts-martial were ſitting, not of his majeſty's forces, but of the rebels in their own camp, in which they proceeded to try thoſe whom they call traitors, that is, thoſe who did not adhere to them; and thoſe they did not only condemn, but alſo executed. This they did by removing from their ſtation in the night, to which they returned again before day-light. No civil power could take theſe practices into conſideration, becauſe any evidence that ſhould be given, would be the unſupported evidence of an accomplice, on which it was not the practice of courts of juſtice to convict. Such attempts to enforce juſtice, and procure tranquillity, would only have expoſed the lives of his majeſty's ſubjects; and, therefore, under this complication of evils, it had been deemed adviſable to paſs this bill, in order, not to overturn, but to protect the municipal law. By the experience of the county of Wexford they had ſeen, that, although general tranquillity had been reſtored in Ireland, the principles and the feelings of rebellious ſpirits there remained the ſame: for they had ſworn a hatred to the government, and an attachment to the enemy, whom they would aſſiſt whenever they had an opportunity of ſo doing. And there was nothing that they were not confident of counteracting, but the energy of the bill before the houſe: a bill which terrified the rebellions, and encouraged the loyal. It was recommended to adminiſtration to ſhew, and hold out to the people of Ireland a good government: he hoped they would have no other. But to abandon the cauſe of the loyal, and give encouragement to the rebellious, was no part of good government. If the bill was unneceſſary, then it was not a meaſure of protection, but of oppreſſion. But, if the government of Ireland ſtood as he had ſtated it, and if the circumſtances of the country were ſuch as he had ſtated them, this would be a meaſure of ample protection to the loyal of that country, and would ſo be regarded by them; and it would operate not only againſt the enemy within, but the enemy without.

Colonel Jackſon, in ſupport of the bill, obſerved, that when the enemy landed, hardly any of the inhabitants of that part of Ireland where they made their deſcent, was ſuppoſed to have any wiſhes in their favour; but it was ſurpriſing to ſee how many had taken the oath of rebellion, when the matter came to be examined.

Colonel Martin aſcribed the preſent general tranquillity in Ireland to the operation of martial law. If a greater degree of diſturbance had prevailed ſince the enactment of the law, it might have afforded an argument againſt the bill; but the effects it had produced were its beſt eulogium. As to the charge of putting perſons to torture, for the purpoſe of extorting confeſſions, it ſhould be remembered, that the firſt act of the preſent chief governor was, to give out, in general orders, that no torture ſhould be inflicted. Torture was forbidden by the law

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of Ireland; and if there was nothing in the exiſting law, or the propoſed bill, for that purpoſe, he aſked whether the honourable gentleman's (Mr. Taylor's) argument againſt the bill was pertinent?

Mr. Courtenay, after beſtowing great praiſe on the lenity, wiſdom, and moderation of marquis Townſhend, under whoſe government the firſt ray of liberty had dawned on Ireland, in the paſſing of the octennial bill, obſerved, that it had been acknowledged by moſt gentlemen from that country, who had ſpoken on the preſent delicate queſtion, that there was now but one court-martial in Ireland. If that was the caſe, could there be any real neceſſity for a law ſo abſolute, tyrannical, and oppreſſive, as that now propoſed?

Colonel Longfield argued the neceſſity of the meaſure, from the recent circumſtances of a witneſs againſt a rebel having been waylaid and wounded, and the mail-coach having been lately robbed by an armed band of ruffians within a few miles of Carlow. Theſe ruffians were, to the full, as well armed as his majeſty's troops, and could not be put down by the civil power. In his opinion, Ireland was now in a worſe ſtate than it was in June, 1798.

Mr. Dawſon, who repreſented a great and populous county of Ireland, had no perſonal knowledge of any circumſtances which made this bill neceſſary: but he gave gentlemen credit for ſincerity who declared, on their knowledge, that it was neceſſary, and, therefore, he ſhould not oppoſe this bill.

Mr. Alexander expreſſed his ſurpriſe, that analogies of law ſhould be preſſed into this debate, when the queſtion related to the foulest, the moſt dangerous, and the wideſt-ſpread conſpiracy, that had ever exiſted in any civilized country. A certain number of miſchievous men had ſeduced the great maſs of the population of Ireland; and the conſpiracy, he muſt ſay, had been ſoſtered by men of property and talents. Its extent and importance were proved by the reliance and aid given to it by the French republic. It was ſuch a conſpiracy, as the intrinſic force of the country could not have withſtood. He had, himſelf, ſeen 60,000 pikes ſent from the metropolis to the inſurgents; and, if theſe had been diſtributed, there were no more than 5000 yeomanry to withſtand the attack. Againſt this maſs of pikes, there was certainly no reaſoning. They wanted ſeparation from England, a French connection, and an equal diviſion of land. In his opinion, the rebellion ſtill exiſted in all its extent, though not in all its force. If the rebels were encouraged by the failure of the preſent bill, the danger could not be removed by any after-meaſures. There was no treating with *Iriſh jacobins*. "If," ſaid he, "we do not rule them, they will rule and exterminate us."

Mr. Weſterna admitted that all was quiet in his part of the country; but, from his knowledge of the ſouth of Ireland, which he had repeatedly viſited in a military capacity, he was convinced that this bill was abſolutely neceſſary. It had, for its object, to prevent atrocities, many of which he had witneſſed, and the mere recital of which ſhould cauſe every man of feeling to ſhudder.

Sir F. Burdett ſaid, that when he heard that diſcontent prevailed, not

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not in particular parts only, but almoſt in every part of Ireland, he thought himſelf juſtified in inferring that this general diſcontent muſt have a general cauſe, and that cauſe he looked upon to be oppreſſion. For his part, he was diſpoſed to adopt the diſtinction made by an honourable friend of his on a former occaſion, and to recommend a recourſe, not to *martial law*, but to *martial force*. "Why not attend," ſaid he, "to the leſſon given us by that great and extraordinary man, who, by his wiſdom and lenity, conſolidated the French republic? He has ſhewn us in La Vendée what are the effects of juſtice and mercy. To that houſe he would recommend the ſame courſe."

Lord de Blaquiere roſe to give his moſt decided ſupport to the preſent meaſure, which he conſidered as eſſential to the ſecurity of Ireland; and to which it would have been fortunate for Ireland, if recourſe had been had ſooner. An honourable baronet had declared his opinion, that there ſhould be but one law reſpecting the ſubject in queſtion for both countries. Now, before the ſame law could be applicable to both countries, it would be neceſſary either to create a rebellion in England, or to put down that which exiſted in Ireland. Other gentlemen had declared, that there were no courts-martial ſitting in Ireland, and that jurors and witneſſes would diſcharge their duty without danger; but he could ſtate, not one but fifty inſtances of perſons being murdered for having faithfully performed their duty as jurors or witneſſes. It ſhould be recollected, that perſons could be tried by courts of law only twice a year, as there were only two circuits; but the ſafety of Ireland required that ſuch offenders, as Ireland was infected with, ſhould be ſpeedily brought to juſtice. As to the tranquillity ſuppoſed to exiſt in Ireland, he could only ſay, that, in July laſt, they burnt his houſe to the ground. He ſuppoſed they intended it as a compliment to him, for it was on his birth-day. He ſtated other inſtances of diſturbance and inſurrection. His lordſhip concluded with declaring, that, if a few of thoſe gentlemen, who perſiſted in ſtating Ireland to be in a tranquil ſtate, would promiſe to go over to Ireland, and reſide in any part he ſhould mention, he would vote with them againſt the bill.

The queſtion being now loudly called for, the bill was read a ſecond time without a diviſion. On the 20th of March, it was read a third time and paſſed.—We now return to the other bill, which had the ſame object in view, and which, in its progreſs through the two houſes of parliament, was collateral.

March 18. The houſe of commons went into a committee on the Iriſh martial-law bill.

Lord Caſtlereagh briefly ſtated, that, though he was perfectly ſatisfied that no court-martial had ever ſat in Ireland, which was compoſed of ſo ſmall a number as three, and though he was perſuaded that it would be more expedient that this, as well as all other particular regulations, ſhould be ſettled by the lord-lieutenant, reſponſible as he was for the manner in which he employed the power veſted in him by the bill, he was willing to accede to an amendment, for the ſake of ſatisfying any ſcruples which might exiſt in the minds of gentlemen on the ſubject. For this purpoſe, he propoſed, "That the number neceſſary

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to conſtitute a court-martial, ſitting under the terms of this act, ſhould be increaſed to ſeven, and that two-thirds* of this number ſhould, in all caſes, be neceſſary to ſanction the execution of the ſentences of courts-martial."

Mr. Grey ſaid, that the amendment of the noble lord was good ſo far as it went; but that it did not go far enough. Only at Botany Bay, and on the coaſt of Africa, was ſo ſmall a number as five officers competent, under the mutiny bill, for the Britiſh army to form a court-martial. Nothing leſs ſhould ſatisfy him than the placing of the conſtitution of the Iriſh courts-martial, under this bill, on the ſame condition, as to numbers, with the courts-martial in the Britiſh army. He objected to the age of nineteen, too, at which, under that bill, an officer might legally have a voice in a court-martial. It had been, at a former period, in the progreſs of the bill, ſtrenuouſly inſiſted, that torture or puniſhment to extort confeſſion was in no wiſe authorized by the acts, which it was intended to continue. But thoſe acts, and even this bill, certainly did grant to the commander-in-chief, power to execute martial law, independently of the authority of courts-martial. What was this but to puniſh without trial, and without inquiry? To inflict puniſhment, which might even have its end in extorting confeſſion? Mr. Grey concluded, with moving three amendments, conformably to the tenor of his ſpeech.

Mr. Grey's amendments were ſupported by Dr. Lawrence and Mr. Trench; and that reſpecting maturity of age, by Mr. Dawſon. They were oppoſed by Mr. Yorke, ſecretary-at-war, ſir John Mitford, the ſpeaker, ſir Edward Law, the attorney-general, Mr. Dawſon, with the exception juſt ſtated, general Loftus, lord de Blaquiere, Mr. Ogle, Mr. Dennis Brown, and colonel Martin.

Mr. Dennis Brown obſerved, that much of what had been ſaid on this ſubject was the reſult of gentlemen's judging of things from what they had felt in this country; but he begged leave to ſay, that, without local knowledge, it was impoſſible to judge of it correctly. The ſeeds of rebellion were often hidden under a tranquil appearance of things. At one place, which he could name, in Ireland, and, indeed, it was in the county in which he reſided, the people appeared to be as quiet as they were in England; and, on the Saturday following, there appeared to be 20,000 men ready to join the French. There was a great meeting of people aſſembled, for the purpoſe of lowering the rents of the farms they occupied, and there was a meeting of landlords to take the ſubject into conſideration. They agreed to offer ſome conciliatory meaſures; and, while they were employed in coming to ſuch an agreement, the inſurgents and incendiaries burnt their houſes. After this, the farmers, in great numbers, refuſed to act as jurymen at the courts of juſtice, ſaying, that, as moſt of their property was moveable, they ſhould loſe it all, if they took any part againſt the rebels.—On this bill it had been argued, as if it were intended to make martial law generally ſuperior to the common law, and that it had been ſupported on this ground; but no ſuch thing had ever been maintained, or

* What forms two-thirds of ſeven men? His lordſhip muſt have meant four, or a majority.

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thought of by the advocates for this measure. It was not martial law but rebellion, that put down the common law in Ireland, and, by martial law, the common law was restored.—The amendments proposed by Mr. Grey, were negatived by great majorities.

Mr. Whitbread observed, that, as the bill now stood, there was no limitation of punishment; and, therefore, that punishments unknown to the law of this land, and even shocking to humanity and civilization, might be inflicted under its authority. Under these impressions, he proposed a clause, for the purpose of providing, "That nothing in this act should extend, or be construed to extend, to empower any court, to be held under its authority, to inflict any punishment that was now provided, either by the common or statute law, and now recognised in the ordinary procedure of the courts of justice."

Lord Castlereagh said, that there never was any thing done under the authority of the act, of which the bill before the house was only a continuance, which was not known to the laws of the realm: nor could any punishment be inflicted, under this bill, of a severer nature than was already known to the law; and, therefore, the objections of the honourable gentleman were not applicable to the present subject.

This reply did not satisfy either Mr. Whitbread, Mr. Hobhouse, Mr. Grey, or Mr. Michael Taylor.—They contended that tortures had been practised, and that, by the present bill, military punishments might be inflicted; but they could not consent that the people of Ireland should be subjected to any punishment, but such as might be inflicted on conviction of the same offences by the ordinary courts of justice, according to the municipal or statute law. The clause proposed was, on the other side, strenuously opposed by Mr. Claudius Beresford, the solicitor-general, Mr. Dawson, the attorney-general, the secretary-at-war, and lord Lostus.

Mr. Beresford said, that the hearts of gentlemen might bleed for the people of Ireland, and lament the severities which had been exercised on them; but they could not feel more on this subject than those had done who saw and felt the necessity of inflicting them: and did they know as well, and had they felt as much, the calamities and the sufferings to which the gentlemen of Ireland were subjected, in the course of the rebellion, as he and many others, they would spare some of their compassion for the people on whom it was found necessary to inflict these severities, and bestow it on those gentlemen whose lives had been endangered, who had been threatened with assassination, and whose property had been plundered and destroyed. That punishments had been inflicted in many cases, for the purpose of extorting confessions from those who were suspected of concealing arms, he would not, and it would be unmanly in him to deny. He would acknowledge that many country gentlemen, whose lives and property were threatened, and who perhaps had reason to apprehend that they might be assassinated in the ensuing night, had inflicted such severities, in order to discover the private depositi of arms, and thus to prevent the designs, which they knew to be harboured against them. This, however, was not authorized by government; but he could ven-

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ture to aſſert, that, in ſuch circumſtances, as thoſe gentlemen were placed in, their conduct was perfectly juſtified.

The ſolicitor-general ſaid, that, upon the ſame principle on which it was alleged to be neceſſary to add the clauſe propoſed to the bill before them, it would be neceſſary to add a ſimilar clauſe to every act or bill, empowering the infliction of a diſcretionary puniſhment: for the words, "by death or otherwiſe," on which the ſuppoſed neceſſity of the clauſe was founded, could ſignify only "by death, or any other puniſhment lighter than death," not any other puniſhment unknown to the law.

The attorney-general ſaid, that all the debate, which had taken place on this clauſe, was merely combating phantoms, and fighting with ſhadows.—The clauſe was negatived by 84 againſt 8.

The bill then paſſed through the committee without farther amendment. Two days thereafter, the bill was read the third time, paſſed, and carried up to the houſe of lords: where, on the third reading, March 23, it was oppoſed by the earl Fitzwilliam, lord Carnarvon, the earl of Moira, lord Holland, and lord King; but ſupported by the earl of Weſtmoreland, the earl of Clare, lord viſcount Limerick, lord Carleton, the earl of Kinnouil, the archbiſhop of Caſhell, the earl of Darnley, the earl of Radnor, and the marquis of Downſhire.

Lord Fitzwilliam thought that it would have been but fair in miniſters to have produced ſome official documents, with reſpect to the ſtate of Ireland, which might juſtify them in the continuance of martial law in that country. Could a ſtronger meaſure have been propoſed, had the country been in a ſtate of actual rebellion? But it was now nearly two years and a half ſince the rebellion had been ſuppreſſed. Was there any interruption to the regular adminiſtration of juſtice? Were there any ſtatements to the houſe, on the part of the judges of Ireland, that they could not do their duty?

The earl of Moira ſaid, that, in a vaſt variety of caſes, recourſe had been had to torture, in order to compel perſons to criminate their neighbours; and, in theſe caſes, the application of the torture was continued not for half a minute only, but for whole hours, and that at ſtated times. On confeſſions ſo obtained, was it poſſible to form an accurate and wholeſome judgement? The ſtate of Ireland, as it had been deſcribed by a noble and learned lord in that houſe, was a melancholy one, indeed: but what was it that had reduced it to ſo miſerable a ſituation? Were the inhabitants of Ireland ſo different from thoſe of Great Britain, ſo abhorrent of civilization, and prone to barbariſm, as though governed ſo long by the ſame laws, to be ſtill placed ſo widely aſunder in character and improvement? To this he ſhould anſwer, by calling to their lordſhips recollection an obſervation of Plato's, "That there never exiſted any thing like a general inſurrection, or ſedition in a country, that did not prove the exiſtence of miſgovernment." He concluded, by repreſenting the bill as unneceſſary, becauſe it was competent for the lord-lieutenant to enforce martial law where it appeared to be neceſſary, and afterwards to call for an indemnity.

Lord Holland ſaid, that Ireland was now a part of this country, and that

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that the houſe was bound to diſtribute law to it, as it would more immediately at home. As to the evidence on which the bill was grounded, it was evidence of three year's ſtanding; the reports of the Iriſh parliament on what happened three years ago: to make ſuch matter evidence of a rebellion exiſting now, was juſt the ſame in principle, as to call the attention of the houſe to the rebellion in Scotland in 1745.

Lord Carnarvon refuſed his aſſent to a law, by which the moſt valuable privileges of the Britiſh conſtitution were ſuſpended, ſhould paſs as a matter of courſe; and unleſs a communication ſhould be received from the crown, recommending its repeal. It was obvious, that if its principle were once adopted, the law might be made perpetual. There had not been any ſufficient proofs adduced of the neceſſity of the meaſure, that it was the object of the bill to eſtabliſh. He admitted the mildneſs and humanity of the preſent lord-lieutenant; but this was no argument in favour of the bill. If it were poſſible to be aſſured of the virtue of thoſe who governed ſtates, arbitrary governments would, in many caſes, be the moſt favourable to happineſs. But, in a government which profeſſed to be free, it was inconſiſtent to defend any meaſure on the ground of confidence.

Lord King, conceived that the number tried and convicted before courts-martial in Ireland, and executed there, was an argument againſt rather than for the bill. Conſidering, at the ſame time, that the inefficacy of the former bills, obnoxious and repugnant as they were, to every notion of Britiſh freedom, had been acknowledged by all the noble lords from Ireland to have been proved, he muſt object to the paſſing the bill.

The earl of Weſtmoreland, ſaid that the houſe was merely called upon to continue a bill, which muſt, *prima facie*, be ſuppoſed to have received the approbation of the king and council of Ireland: with which ſtrong recommendation in its favour, he ſhould rather think, that nothing but a recommendation from the crown, ſhould induce their lordſhips to reject it.

The earl of Clare, in an argumentative, clear, eloquent, and convincing ſpeech, ſhewed from authentic documents, that ſuch was the unfortunate, the melancholy, and degraded ſtate of Ireland, that ſhe muſt either fly to a military government, or ſubmit to an unprincipled, a ſavage, and a ferocious democracy. The rebellion in Ireland did not proceed from miſtaken loyalty, religious zeal, or party difference. All principle had been corrupted; every laudable feeling had been extirpated from the mind; and nothing prevailed but domeſtic treaſon, bloody murder, and cowardly aſſaſſination. To diſturb the adminiſtration of juſtice, had been, and continued to be, the principal object of the conſpirators. The plan of giving every criminal a liſt of the jurors and witneſſes before the day of trial was quite impracticable: nine-tenths of jurors and witneſſes would be murdered before the day appointed. Lord Clare drew a picture of the ſtate of Ireland, at which humanity ſhudders. It was filled up with all that is brutal in ſavage, and all that is corrupt and deteſtable in civilized life. Where the contagion was the ſtrongeſt, it was impoſſible to know. The county of Limerick, in which he reſided, was almoſt the only one which

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which remained quiet during the rebellion. Yet a dangerous insurrection, afterwards, suddenly broke out in this: and it was begun by an atrocious murder committed under his own roof. One of his servants was put to death, with circumstances the most shocking to humanity, merely because he was an Englishman. And, to shew the extreme barbarism at which the Irish people had arrived, the principal assassin was a man who had been his servant, and his father's servant, upwards of thirty years, and had been uniformly treated by both with the utmost possible kindness. The wretch had stolen arms from his house, and distributed them among the rebels. When he was led to execution, he confessed to the priest who attended him, that a list of twenty had been made out, whom it was resolved to murder, and that his master was one of the number. He, lord Clare, was the only person who gave employment and bread to the poor in the neighbourhood, and without him, they must have been reduced to the greatest wretchedness. He mentioned this, to shew that they were not animated by any thing resembling a rational motive, but were incited merely by a thirst of blood. 'If the noble earl Fitzwilliam (to whom lord Clare by his look addressed himself all along) could find time to visit his estates in the county of Wicklow, he would see that these representations were not exaggerated. He would there behold nothing but traces of desolation, and signs of the renewal of horrors. With the deepest regret he saw such things, and spoke of them. Happy would he be to see his country restored to order. If he could go to his bed-chamber, without going as to an armoury, and could close his eyes without apprehensions of having his throat cut before morning, or seeing his wife and children butchered before him. He should be inexpressibly happy, when he could once more go out unarmed: for it was a curious fact, that when he was in Ireland, his servant brought him his arms, as regularly as he brought him his hat. To think of repressing this spirit by coaxing, concessions, and indulgence, was absurd. Acts of that kind, though well meant, had already had a mischievous tendency. The rebels had a system of laws the most severe, and the most promptly executed. This was far more efficient than the civil code, and could only be met and counteracted by martial-law. If the bill under consideration were not renewed, scenes would be exhibited in Ireland, to which there had been nothing similar since the year 1641.

Lord Limerick supported the propriety of the measure proposed, though he deeply lamented the dire necessity that compelled the legislature to adopt it. Lord Carleton observed that the bill had not been originally adopted, or continued, without a full persuation of its necessity: and he had reason to think this necessity not less at present: for, according to the latest accounts, Ireland was less tranquil, at that moment, than it had been a year ago. The bill was introduced into the other house of parliament by the express approbation of the present lord-lieutenant, whose integrity none had ever dared to dispute; whose feelings of humanity all allowed; and who would not recommend a measure which added so much to his responsibility, without a conviction of its necessity. This recommendation he brought forward

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forward in aid of the facts which had been adduced in support of the measure; and concluded by giving his decided vote for the motion.

The earl of Kinnoull referred to the measure which it had been thought necessary to adopt, by a wig administration, in the disarming the Highlanders of Scotland after the rebellion in 1745. His lordship contended that, as that measure had been productive of no bad consequences, but, on the contrary, had been the means of giving the fullest effect to the blessings of the constitution, so he trusted, that the measure proposed, though in the meantime violent, would be the means of restoring peace and happiness to Ireland. Lord Grenville contended, that it sufficiently appeared from the reports of the Irish parliament, that the rebellion was of such a nature, that, though the rebellious army was destroyed in the field, the principles on which it had been formed, had been infused into the spirit of the people long before that rebellion appeared in the field, and that their influence would be necessarily protracted, long after the strength of the rebellion had appeared to be broken. The archbishop of Cashell, as an incontestible proof of the present measures being still necessary, stated the trials under it to have been, in the last two years, not fewer than two hundred; those even within the last two months to the number of sixty; and the condemnations out of these sixty, not fewer than thirty-four. Not a noble lord then hearing him, could affirm, *on his honour*, that civil justice would have its due course, if the courts were not under the protection of martial-law. The only thing, he could regret, in regard to the bill, was, its not extending the power of martial-law till the probable commencement of the next session of parliament.

The earl of Darnley said, that the house had, that day, heard such strong evidence, or satisfactory information, who from their long residence, and professional course of practice in Ireland, must have a far better acquaintance with that part of his majesty's dominions than he could pretend to, that he was fully convinced that the necessity for the bills passing was imperious and paramount. The earl of Radnor owned that he disliked the bill: but after what he had heard from noble and learned lords, he was convinced that the bill was necessary, and would give it his support. He thought it necessary, at the same time, to take that opportunity of declaring, that, if it should be found expedient to bring in another bill of the same kind, in the course of the present session of parliament, he should not be contented to vote for that bill, unless those noble and learned lords should come prepared with authentic documents, of more recent and satisfactory authority, than the reports of committees of the houses of lords and commons of the Irish parliament three or four years ago.

The marquis of Downshire closed the debate by giving his testimony and concurrence to what had been stated concerning the situation of Ireland, and the urgent necessity for immediately passing the bill: so fully convinced was he, from his own personal knowledge, of the present alarming condition of several counties in Ireland, which he had quitted only three weeks, that he wished he had possessed a villa in the county of Wicklow, in which

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eaſe, he would have invited ſix of the noble lords, or of the gentlemen of the other houſe, who had oppoſed the bill, to accompany him to that villa, where they would receive ſuch indubitable evidence of the quiet and ſecurity of perſon and property in that country, that, before twenty-four hours had paſſed over their heads, they would be eager to be conducted back again to this happier part of the united kingdom.—On a diviſion of the houſe, the motion for the third reading of the bill, was carried by 90 againſt 7. The bill was then read and paſſed. The hebeas corpus ſuſpenſion bill for Ireland was alſo read a third time, and paſſed. The period fixed, for the continuance of both, was for three months, from the 25th of March.

April 2. A ſelect committee was choſen, by ballot, in the houſe of commons, in conſequence of a communication from his majeſty, whoſe health was now happily reſtored, for inquiring into the ſtate of Ireland, and the conduct of certain diſaffected perſons in Great Britain. The firſt report from this committee, preſented by Mr. Pelham, ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, was taken into conſideration April 14. Mr. Pelham truſted that the houſe would give credit to the committee for having done their duty, and ſuggeſted ſuch meaſures for their adoption, as to their judgement appeared neceſſary, from the proofs laid before them. Such was the urgency of the occaſion, that, without waiting to go through the whole of the documents laid before them, they thought it neceſſary to direct him, as their chairman, to make a ſpecial report of the firſt part of their proceedings. From the report of the ſecret committee of the Iriſh parliament 1798; the plot was developed on which the rebellion in that country was founded. And it afterwards appeared from the report of 1799, that a committee was ſitting in Hamburgh, compoſed of perſons who were concerned in the rebellious plots of both countries, who had fled from juſtice, and whoſe object it was to ſuggeſt, in concert with their accomplices in Great Britain and Ireland, new plots of inſurrection, and facilitate a correſpondence with the enemy. The meaſures which his majeſty's miniſters, ſupported by the wiſdom and firmneſs of parliament, then adopted, happily. But it was apparent that the expiration of thoſe ſevere, though ſalutary laws, had again induced the agents of ſedition to reſume their projects. They were again ſeduloufly employed in the moſt inſidious endeavours to agitate the minds of the common people, and take advantage of the preſſure of the times, to ſtimulate them to outrage, to oppreſſions, and rapine. He therefore moved for leave to bring in a bill "to revive the acts of the king, for ſuſpending, for a time to be limited, the habeas corpus, and for preventing ſeditious and tumultuous meetings." This motion was oppoſed by Mr. A. Taylor, Mr. Curwen, ſir F. Burdett, Mr. Grey, Mr. Sheridan, and Mr. Horne Tooke. Mr. Taylor conſidered the bill as calculated only to detain ſtill longer in confinement, perſons who had already been two years incaſcerated, and refuſed every application for trial. The bill was unneceſſary; for, if miniſters had proof of any man's guilt, they had it now in their power to arreſt and impriſon without the ſanction of any bill. Averſe

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as he was to the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus bill, he was ſtill more averſe to that purporting to be for the prevention of ſeditious meetings; becauſe it inveſted magiſtrates with powers, not only to prevent or diſperſe ſeditious meetings, but alſo meetings of the moſt legal and conſtitutional nature. Mr. Curwen thought the meaſure unneceſſary. Sir F. Burdett conſidered the report of the ſecret committee as the juſtification of a vote of credit, on the blood of the people of Ireland. But the plea of neceſſity was reſorted to; once admit that plea, and there was an end of all political and moral juſtice, and national character. He could neither admit the plea nor the evidence of its exiſtence. Mr. Grey aſked what muſt be the nature of a conſpiracy that had nothing to depend upon but the exertions of about twenty perſons, who were, at laſt, liberated on the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act, without ever having been brought to trial? For the crime of treaſon, the law was ſufficient. For the leſſer offence, of giving cauſe for ſuſpicion, the meaſure propoſed was not neceſſary. At any rate, it had not been ſtated, that any detriment could accrue from allowing the houſe a little more time. If, in the preſent circumſtances, there exiſted a neceſſity for the meaſure propoſed, when Mr. Sheridan put the queſtion, would the people of this country be ſuffered to enjoy their conſtitution? When the late miniſtry, were hard preſſed, they hatched plots, and found their beſt ally in a plot-bag. It was a ſtrengthening plaſter to a weak-backed adminiſtration. When three-fourths of the induſtry of the country ſubſiſted on charity, did the poor hungry populace ſtrike a blow? what outrage had they committed, to warrant the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act? It was the conduct of his majeſty's diſmiſſed miniſters that had brought the country to ruin; and now they acted towards his majeſty's preſent miniſters, on the principle of reciprocity; "Claw me, and I'll claw you." Mr. Pitt had counſelled the preſent miniſters, not to follow the counſels of the oppoſition, but his own: they did ſo; and hence their mutual complacency and praiſe. The propoſed bill, gave his majeſty's miniſters a power to look round Great Britain, and lodge any man they thought proper in Coldbath-fields priſon. Great vaunting had been in that houſe, and many congratulations had taken place, on the contempt entertained by the people for Jacobiniſm. And yet the houſe was now called upon to ſuppreſs what it was ſo lately told, did not exiſt in the country. He could not but conſider the preſent meaſure as a pretext to make the ſuſpenſion permanent; becauſe nothing in thoſe times demanded it.

Mr. Horne Tooke ſaid, that the power now veſted in the hands of miniſtry, did not proceed from ſuch a bill as the preſent alone; almoſt the whole of the conſtitution was gone; and therefore more danger was likely to ariſe from truſting them with the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus. The freedom of the conſtitution, and the ſafety of the country, depended on the ſeparate diſtribution of the various functions of government among diſtinct bodies. But now this diſtribution was done away, and all the powers, both legiſlative, judicial, and executive, were united in one hand, namely, that of the

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the minister of the crown; nor was this all. The ministers of the crown had, to their other powers, added even the functions of jailors, and subjected men to rigorous confinement without any charge. The present measure had been represented as a temporary measure. It was seven years, however, since the measure had been first introduced. And a measure of that continuance, and which was now to be renewed, could not be called temporary. Nor was it possible that a treasonable and dangerous conspiracy could last so long in any country.

Mr. Pelham's motion was supported by Mr. Addington, the chancellor of the exchequer, the solicitor general, Mr. Percival, Mr. Martin, and the attorney-general. Mr. Addington did once believe, that the remnant of dissatisfaction was so small, that those measures, which were adopted by former parliaments, would not have been necessary, at that period: but he now felt their necessity: not because the spirit of disaffection had increased, but that the spirit on which disaffection operated had increased. That spirit of malignity which sought the ruin of all subsisting systems of order, derived strength from public calamity. Disaffected persons had been busily endeavouring to turn the distresses of the people, arising from the high price of provisions, into a discontent toward the state, by which they were protected. Were the poor to be conciliated by telling them, that they had borne with admirable patience the difficulties and distresses which had fallen to their lot, but that now the legislature would leave them to the plots and contrivances of those who had been endeavouring to work their ruin?

Mr. Percival was not surprized that the arguments contained in the report of the committee had not produced any effect on the minds of the gentlemen on the other side of the house, and particularly on that of sir Francis Burdett. They contemplated every thing through so thick a mist of prejudice, that it was hardly possible that gentlemen on the side of ministry could co-incide with them in their opinion. He did not mean to insinuate that gentlemen in that house were actuated by the same views as those out of it: but certainly the opinions given in the house had been productive of considerable mischief. He would appeal to sir Francis Burdett whether, if any of his friends were, by a report which he believed to be true, marked out for speedy assassination, he should think it necessary that evidence should be brought of a specific attempt, before he detained the suspected?

Mr. Martin considered the report of the Irish parliament as sufficient evidence of the existence of a conspiracy in England.

The attorney-general, convinced as he was, that, when conspiracies of the most dangerous sort were aiming at the destruction of every thing that was dear and valuable to the country, and when the most licentious systems of French policy were in action, ministers would have been guilty of accelerating the ruin of the country, if they had not proposed the measure before them.

The bill was read, for the first time, without a division. A motion that the bill be now read a second time, on a division of the house, was carried

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carried by 190 votes againſt 34, and paſſed. The blank for time was filled up with "During the continuance of the war, and for one month after the ſigning of a definitive treaty of peace." The ſedition bill to be continued for the ſame time, alſo paſſed: and both were carried up to the lords for their concurrence.

The bill for the ſuſpenſion of habeas corpus, on the ſecond reading, was oppoſed by the earl of Moira, on the old ground, that no communication had been made, concerning it from the throne, and that no ſufficient documents had been laid before the houſe of its neceſſity. Miniſters had merely laid papers on the table without any meſſage, thus avoiding all reſponſibility with regard to the meaſure to be brought forward, and ſhifting it from themſelves to the committee. He could not take looſe ſtatements as a ſufficient ground for the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act. Lord Holland reaſoned to the ſame effect. If ſuch general ſtatements were to juſtify the houſe in adopting meaſures of this nature, he wiſhed to know how far this principle was to be carried? The bill was defended by lord Boringdon, the earl of Weſtmoreland, lord Hobart, and lord Grenville. Lord Weſtmoreland deſcribed the bill now under conſideration as a meaſure of protection to the loyal, and of prevention and forbearance to the evil minded. Lord Grenville obſerved, that the degree of proof required by noble lords, was incompatible with the very object of a committee of ſecrecy, which was inſtituted for the very purpoſe of guarding againſt giving public information of the ſources from whence the evidence and intelligence were derived; which would counteract the end for which ſuch committee was appointed. The bill was read a third time and paſſed.

Houſe of lords, April 16. A ſecret committee, conſiſting of eleven, was choſen by ballot, for taking into conſideration the report of the ſecret committee of the houſe of commons, and for the purpoſe of inveſtigating papers and documents reſpecting the proceedings of certain ſeditious perſons in Great Britain and Ireland. The report of this committee was preſented to the houſe, April 27. From this report it appeared that when the act for preventing ſeditious meetings had expired, the moſt ſtirring members of the London correſponding ſociety, drew together at firſt cautiouſly, and in ſmall parties, changing frequently their place of meeting. Various plans were formed for reſuming and carrying on, with more ſecurity, their former practices. Among other devices, it was reſolved to aſſume the name and appearance of a benefit ſociety. In this ſociety many members of the former ſociety were engaged. Others of the former ſociety formed a ſecret ſociety, which, after it had attained a proper maturity, was announced to the benefit ſociety, that had been eſtabliſhed about three weeks and become numerous, by two perſons in the character of delegates from a ſociety of emancipation, and deſiring to know whether the pretended benefit ſociety would connect itſelf with their ſociety. The propoſal was favourably received, and a meeting appointed, at which they ſhould be furniſhed with the inſtructions of the

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the plan of that ſociety. The inſtructions were to this effect—The members to be admitted by a teſt, or declaration on oath, to be ſworn on the Bible, when it could be produced; but it was obſerved, that ſince Paine's Age of Reaſon, it was looked on as a mark of inciviſm to keep a Bible. The perſons intruſted to ſwear others, or, in the phraſe of the ſociety, to initiate them, were termed *conductors*. They received a written appointment, with a printed inſtruction, and printed declaration. Ten initiated were allotted to each conductor, who was to make a report of them at ſtated times, to another officer called a *ſuperintendant*, appointed over every ten conductors. To each ſuperintendant a meſſenger was aſſigned, by whom he was to communicate with the EXECUTIVE, the names and number of which executive were to be known only to themſelves, or perhaps, to the meſſengers: but they were ſuppoſed to be perſons of ſuperior conſequence. Signs were inſtituted by which the members might know each other: but it did not diſtinctly appear whether all the initiated, or only the conductors, were intruſted with the knowledge of the ſigns. The plan thus explained was fully approved, and the benefit ſociety agreed to form, together with this, one indiviſible ſociety, under the name of United Britons. This aſſociation appeared to the committee to have taken place about the middle of March, 1801. In their general meetings they were ſomewhat reſerved on the ſubject of religion, for fear of frightening away perſons who had ſome reſpect for religion: which, the committee obſerved, had happily been the caſe, and contributed to the detection of their ſchemes. It appeared that one of the principal objects of their leaders had been to work upon all perſons whoſe religious opinions differed from thoſe of the eſtabliſhment: for which purpoſe the general executive had recommended it in the ſtrongeſt manner to their followers, to mix as much as poſſible with ſuch perſons, and, by concealing their own ſentiments, which were averſe to all religion, and ſeemingly adopting thoſe of the perſons with whom they ſhould communicate, to gain proſelytes to their political deſigns, and thus to promote the execution of their determined purpoſe to overthrow the conſtitution. In the confidential meetings of the initiated, however, they endeavoured to turn the people againſt religion, in order to overthrow the ſtate through the church, obſerving that, if there were no church, there would be no king. Among the moſt frequent ſubjects treated in thoſe confidential meetings of the initiated, were plans of inſurrection to be excited on pretext of the high price of proviſions; but directed to the ſubverſion of government, and the means for procuring arms of the moſt dangerous ſpecies. The members were directed to frequent clubs where workmen and ſoldiers reſorted; to appear there unconnected, and to hold oppoſite ſides on the queſtions they were inſtructed to raiſe. Their purpoſes were of a more ſanguinary complexion than the ordinary miſchiefs of a mob. For the committee had received particular information of the time and place, and of ſome perſons attending the meeting within a very recent period, when a plan of aſſaſſinating certain members of parliament in their own houſes, formed

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formed with no inconſiderable degree of contrivance, was propoſed, and ſeemed to meet with the general acquieſcence of the company, that it would be meritorious.

It had alſo appeared to the committee, that ſocieties of a ſimilar formation with this, ſince the period when it had become generally known, that the act for preventing ſeditious meetings had expired, had been formed in various parts of the country, and, after the expiration of the act for ſuſpending the habeas corpus, had aſſumed a bold, and daring aſpect. Beſides theſe places, where the operations of ſuch ſocieties had been known only to the vigilant attention of the magiſtrates, and kept down by their prudence and firmneſs, a very dangerous conſpiracy of a ſimilar nature had manifeſted itſelf in ſome parts of the country, which, from all its forms, and habits, afforded the ſtrongeſt preſumption of a mutual intercourſe between thoſe conſpirators, and the United Britons. The only apparent difference was, that the meeting in the country, being chiefly connected with manufacturers, was obliged to aſſume a more apparent concern for their intereſt in regard to the dearneſs of living, and oſtenſibly aimed at the reduction of the price of proviſions, or the increaſe of the price of labour: whereas the ſociety of United Britons, in London, did not heſitate to profeſs their wiſh to fruſtrate every plan for the relief of the poor; the high price of proviſions being moſt favourable to their object of exciting inſurrection. It was beyond all doubt that there ſtill exiſted, in the dominions of the king's enemies, at leaſt two eſtabliſhed committees of traitors to the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, actively employed in carrying on correſpondence by their agents, with the leaders of the ſocieties, abetting them in the moſt atrocious circumſtances of the crimes they were meditating; and encouraging them by holding out hopes of invaſion. Many of the united Iriſh, who either from the lenity of the Iriſh government, or their own apprehenſion of its juſt ſeverity, had taken refuge there, by all the means they had been uſed to practiſe, ſtimulated and inflamed the members of thoſe meetings to a higher pitch of extravagance, and rendered it more neceſſary to ſubject them to that control, which, in its former exerciſe, had been as uſeful to themſelves, as it had been ſalutary to the ſtate. For it was remarkable that no act of reſtriction could be more truly preventive than the ſtatute in queſtion had proved to be; there having ſeldom occurred an occaſion for enforcing the act during its continuance. It was, therefore, the decided and unanimous opinion of the committee, that the bill now referred to their conſideration ſhould be paſſed into a law.

If we conſidered it as our buſineſs, in this part of the preſent narrative, merely to ſet forth the debates in parliament, or the eloquence, or reaſoning on which the deciſion of the principal queſtions turned, we might have ſpared our readers and ourſelves a large portion of the detail into which we have followed committees and individuals, concerning the ſtate of Ireland. But in the circumſtantial and picturesque deſcriptions, and the anecdotes into which both committees and individual members of parliament were induced to enter, a more lively and juſt view of the

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ſtate of Ireland, at the period deſcribed, is exhibited, than could well be expected from the pen of any individual journaliſt. And we have not neglected to record that variety of curious and intereſting facts which came out in the parliamentary proceedings of the preſent year, as a valuable ſupplement to our former narratives of the affairs of Ireland. The report of the committee of lords, of which the ſubſtance has been juſt given, appears extremely curious on two accounts. 1. We find a number of political projectors and leaders, whoſe grand aim is to overthrow the ſtate by overthrowing ſentiments of morality and religion, binding themſelves to ſecrecy and mutual fidelity by the *ſolemnity of an oath*. 2. The moſt prominent feature, the moſt ſtriking and uniform characteriſtic in the hiſtory of conſpiracies, of all ages and countries, is their failure of ſucceſs. Though the conſpirators be but few in number, known to each other, confident in mutual attachment, men of honour, and who have given proofs of honour and the moſt determined courage: yet, ſome change or other in circumſtances, health, humour, hope, or fear, is almoſt always ſure to derange the beſt concerted plans of conſpiration, of great and eventful iſſue, even where they are neither watched nor ſuſpected. That multitudes of the loweſt orders of the people, unknown to one another, under no reſtraints of honour or a regard to character, but ſubject to all the weakneſſes and apprehenſions of human nature in its baſeſt condition, ſhould count with confidence on mutual fidelity and prompt and timely co-operation in the moment of danger, is a pitch of folly to which the blindneſs and precipitation of the vulgar never before arrived, and to which they would never have reached, unleſs they had been mingled with a maſs of pretenſions to ſuperior wiſdom. Though ſuch a conſpiracy could never have been crowned with ultimate ſucceſs, yet its exploſions, here and there, and at different times, would have involved, together with the ruin of the conſpirators themſelves, that of thouſands of others. Therefore the vigilance and precaution of government was wiſe and merciful. On the other hand, the inquiries and the ſtrong proteſts that were made, in both houſes of parliament, againſt any ſuſpenſion of habeas corpus, or extenſion of military law, on grounds either light or uncertain, merit equal praiſe: and are alſo matter of congratulation to Britiſh ſubjects.

On the order of the day, for the third reading of the ſedition bill, April 28, it was objected to by the duke of Bedford, as an unneceſſary violation of the Britiſh conſtitution. It was ſupported by the earl of Weſtmoreland as both ſalutary and indiſpenſable; read the third time; and paſſed without a diviſion. The Iriſh martial law bill, on the ſame principles, and evidence brought forward by the ſecret committees, was continued to the 25th of March, 1802. A bill was alſo paſſed for indemnifying all perſons concerned in ſecuring, impriſoning, and detaining individuals under the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act,

* For the copious reports of the commons, on this ſubject, ſee State Papers in this volume.

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ſince the 1ſt of February, 1793. This bill met with great oppoſition in both houſes, as calculated to ſcreen miſconduct, by *an expoſt facto* law. And very warm altercations took place about an alleged juggle between the late and preſent miniſters. Various petitions were preſented againſt the bill, in the courſe of its progreſs, from perſons complaining of injuries and cruelties. On a motion, by the duke of Bedford, June 12, a liſt was produced of all the perſons who had been taken into cuſtody on a charge of ſedition or treaſon, together with the length of time, and the names of the places in which they had been confined. A bill of indemnity was alſo paſſed for Ireland. This bill was not confined to the apprehending, and detaining of perſons on the charge of treaſonable practices, but extended to all acts done for the preſervation of the public peace.

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CHAP. X.

Bounties on the Importation of Grain.—Improvement of Commons—And Waſte Lands.—Cultivation of Potatoes.—Inquiry into the Salt-Duties, and the Means for remedying the Inconveniences ariſing from thence.—Repeal of Brown Bread Act.—Relief of Inſolvent Debtors.—Law for preventing the Arreſt of Aliens in Great Britain for Debts contracted in France previous to the Revolution.—Clergymen declared incapable of being Members of the Houſe of Commons.—Poor Houſekeepers relieved from Poors Rate.—Cenſorial Functions of Parliament.—Rewards.—Motions for Inquiries tending to Diſgrace and Puniſhment.—India Budgets for two Years preceding the 25th of March, 1801.—Mr. Dundas's Plan for the Government of India.

FROM meaſures relating to the internal ſecurity and tranquillity of the kingdom, we proceed, according to our plan, to thoſe of general economy, whether for the correction of abuſes and errors, or the improvement of advantages. Bounties were continued on the importation of corn. A bill was brought into parliament, and paſſed into a law, for extending the powers of a former act, of the 13th of his preſent majeſty, for the improvement of commons, and cultivation of waſte lands. Mr. Charles Dundas, who introduced the bill, recommended to the attention of the houſe, a letter from ſir Joſeph Banks to lord Carrington. It was formerly believed that land under cultivation would not continue to produce crops, unleſs allowed to reſt occaſionally: and the correſponding ſyſtem was ſtill practiſed by many reſpectable farmers. But the beſt informed and moſt intelligent cultivators, it was ſtated in the letter from ſir Joſeph, had long ago given up that unthrifty management, and in light ſoils eſpecially, it was univerſally allowed, that arable land, would continue in an unimpaired ſtate, if not in a progreſſive courſe of improvement, provided that it regularly received from the cultivator, the whole of the manure produced upon it. This information ſir Joſeph received from a practical farmer, to whom he gave all the credit of the diſcovery, * from which it certainly followed as a corollary, that potatoes might be planted on common lands, inſtead of letting them lie fallow, with great advantage to the occu-

* As to the diſcovery, it was a diſcovery to few only but philoſophers. Nevertheleſs, to call it up to recollection, and to make the proper inference, was well timed and laudable.

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pier as well as the public. A bill was introduced by sir William Pultney, for encouraging the growth of potatoes. This bill did not interfere with the other bill for encouraging the growth of potatoes in common fields. The object of sir William's bill was, the improvement of a great deal of unproductive land, by raising potatoes in autumn: which article would prove of particular service, at a time before the new corn could be threshed out, and brought to market. Reports were made, from time to time, from committees of both houses for considering, and making reports on the high price of provisions, and resolutions formed thereon for inclosure, and other bills. In consequence of a report from that committee, found d on another from the board of agriculture, a bill was brought into the house of commons, by Mr. Ryder, March 2, for granting 28,000*l.* to be laid out in premiums for encouraging the cultivation of potatoes. The wisdom or expediency of, this measure was much questioned.

Mr. Buxton contended that the present high price of potatoes was a sufficient bounty of itself. All bounties were, in his opinion, injurious. It was best to allow that crop to be cultivated, which would prove most profitable. It was unwise to propose a bounty on one particular article of food, to the prejudice of the growth of corn in general.

Mr. Horne Tooke, after apologizing for talking on agricultural subjects, made some observations, to which we here give a place, as they appear to merit, and loudly demand the public attention. The re mium now proposed, he said, could do nothing but mischief. Besides the injustice of making the landholder pay the premium out of his own estate, misery must extend to the whole country, unless the whole scheme of keeping down the price of provisions should be changed. It was in vain to struggle against necessity. The legislature could not keep down the price of provisions, unless it kept down the national debt. Prices had risen, and would inevitably continue to rise. It had been asked, how the cottager might be made happy? The cottager would be made happy by raising every thing in proportion to the price of provisions: his labour among the rest. Labour had risen, and it must rise higher. "The price of labour must go up: up it must go, do what you will, you must suffer labour to be raised with the price of provisions. To the few who deserve assistance, let assistance be given. The landed gentleman does not suffer; he can raise his rents. The revenue does not suffer; that must be provided. Where then will the storm fall? on the public creditor. He lends the public 100*l.* for which he is paid 3*l.* 10*s.* interest. That may be, 100 quarters loaves, or 40, or 20, according to the price. He is therefore the person who suffers by the rise in the price of provisions: not that the money he receives, as the interests of his capital, is less; but that the quantity of goods he receives for his money is less, and still less, and less: while the taxes are rising more and more. If the new administration means to go on like the last, they have an interest in proposing premiums. They may otherwise be fearful of not having money lent them. I am sure it

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would be better for the country, if no man would lend them a groat. Let them take three-fourths of a man's intereſt on property, and take off the taxes. If you do not reduce the national debt, the public creditor, inſtead of one hundred and twenty loaves for his 100*l.* will, by and by, have only two or three."

A bill was brought in, providing for the incloſure and improvement of certain uncultivated lands in England and Wales, particularly bogs and marſhy grounds, without ſpecial application to parliament. A committee was appointed, for inquiring into the law relating to the duty on ſalt, and into the means of remedying the inconveniences ariſing therefrom. This meaſure met with univerſal applauſe. By the brown-bread bill, paſſed at the end of the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, it had been conceived that a conſiderable ſaving would have been made in the uſe of wheat; but owing to the general partiality of the people of this country for the fine ſort of bread, it was found that the fine ſort of wheat could not be manufactured according to proviſions of the act; and, likewiſe, that the inferior ſorts of wheat of this country's growth, were in danger of being thrown out of the market, while the finer ſort proportionally roſe in price. It alſo appeared, that the price of the coarſer wheat was diminiſhed but little, while that of the quatern loaf was not more reduced than ſix or ſeven farthings. It had alſo been ſuppoſed, that a much larger quantity of bread could have been manufactured from a ſack of coarſe than of fine flour; but, in this, the committee was diſappointed. For theſe reaſons, the act made in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, to prevent the manufacturing of bread from fine flour was repeal'd.

This ſeſſion, a bill, which had been for many years in contemplation, and under diſcuſſion, was paſſed, for the relief of inſolvent, not fraudulent, debtors, on the condition of the *ceſſio bonorum*, as in Scotland and Holland, and other countries.

The humanity and juſtice of the country were alſo diſplayed in a bill, which was carried without oppoſition into a law, for preventing the arreſt of aliens in Great Britain for debts contracted in France previous to the revolution. Many of the reſpectable emigrants from France were unable to pay the debts they had contracted, on account of having loſt all their property by the revolution; and what rendered the juſtice, as well as the neceſſity of protecting ſuch perſons, the bonds belonging to the original creditors had been bought up at a very ſmall price, and many of them obtained in a fraudulent manner. In this protecting bill were comprehended perſons, who, though they had been born in any part of his majeſty's dominions, had paſſed over before the age of fifteen years, and conſtantly reſided in the dominions of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty. The great patron and promoter of this bill, as of the Engliſh inſolvent debtors bill, was the earl of Moira.

In conſequence of the enforcement of an act of Henry VIII. for commanding the reſidence of the clergy in their reſpective pariſhes, that body of men were ſubjected to innumerable vexations. The proſecutions and perſonal hardſhips to which they were expoſed, proceeded ſolely from purpoſes of extortion. All actions, which were, or might

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might be commenced againſt, for the recovery of informations on that ſtatute, were therefore ſuſpended till the 25th of March, 1802; and this new act might be pled in bar of ſuch actions. To counterbalance, in ſome meaſure, this act of favour, the clergy were declared, not only by the houſe of commons, but by the whole legiſlature, ineligible to repreſent the people in parliament. A ſelect committee of the houſe of commons was, April 14, appointed to examine the journals of that houſe, and records of parliament, for precedents, reſpecting the eligibility of perſons in holy orders to ſit in the houſe, and to report the ſame to the houſe from time to time.

May. 4. The earl Temple moved the order of the day for the houſe to take into conſideration the report of the ſelect committee appointed to inquire into the eligibility of John Horne Tooke, eſq. being a perſon in holy orders, to a ſeat in that houſe. The minutes of the evidence taken at the bar being read over by the clerk, lord Temple, in a long and elaborate ſpeech, endeavoured to ſhew, that, in the whole courſe of the Engliſh hiſtory, from the time of Edward I. to the preſent moment, the clergy had never been acknowledged by that houſe, or the conſtitution of the realm, as repreſentatives of the commonalty of Great Britain; that, at different periods, the clergy were taxed by the commons, and that at all times they were ſo to a certain extent; that the principle, that the clergy were not eligible to the commons houſe of parliament, was *broadly* eſtabliſhed; that the uncertain and diſputed right of taxation, which the clergy gave up in 1644, was fully and ampl made up to them, by giving them, in its place, the right of voting for thoſe whom they ſhould chooſe to repreſent them in parliament. He therefore contended, that the member for Old Sarum could not come amongſt them as a clergyman; nor yet as a layman, becauſe a layman he could not be. He concluded, with moving, that the ſpeaker do iſſue his warrant to the clerk of the crown, to make out a new writ for the election of a burgeſs to ſerve in the preſent parliament, for the borough of Old Sarum, in the room of the reverend J. H. Tooke, who being, at the time of his election in prieſt's orders, was incapable of ſitting in that houſe.

Mr. Addington felt ſome embarraſſment on the ſubject, from the manner in which the noble lord had propoſed it. He wiſhed that his lordſhip had ſolicited the attention of the houſe, and aſked it to form an opinion on the abſtract queſtion of the eligibility of clergymen to ſeats in that houſe. Thinking this a caſe of great magnitude, he declared a readineſs to move for leave to bring in a bill to remove doubts on the eligibility of perſons in holy orders to take ſeats in that houſe, unleſs ſome members better qualified ſhould undertake the taſk. He entered into the hiſtory and merits of the queſtion, which he treated with perſpicuity and ability, on the ground of both precedent and principle. The object of the bill would be, to declare perſons in holy orders ineligible to ſit in the houſe of commons in future; but not, by a retroſpective power, in the nature of an *expoſt facto* law, to annul the paſt election of Mr. J. H. Tooke, or any other member of that houſe. On a motion by Mr. Addington,

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leave was granted to bring in the bill on the 6th of May. It was a bill partly declaratory, and partly enacting. It occupied the houſe of commons a long time, and gave occaſion to many learned and animated debates in both houſes.—Several amendments were propoſed, but negatived; and the bill was paſſed, through the uſual forms and ſtages, into a law.—During the progreſs of the bill, Mr. H. Tooke did not fail to exerciſe his well-known talents for ſhrewd reaſoning, wit, ridicule, and pointed ſatyr. When notice was given of the bill, Mr. Tooke, in the courſe of a learned, argumentative, ſpirited, and humourous ſpeech, ſaid, "I have been told, that I have a voice in the convocation. It is above forty years ſince I took orders, and I never once was ſummoned to the convocation. Clergymen are ineligible, as they have the care of ſouls. Sir, I have no ſoul to take care of but my own. They ought to ſtay at home, and exerciſe the duties of hoſpitality: I have no reſidence, and no funds given me for this purpoſe. Were I a Jew, ſir, a Jeſuit, a Mahomedan, a Pagan, a Preſbyterian, a Quaker, there could not be the leaſt objection to me. In ſpreading the doctrines, and adminiſtering the rites of theſe various religions and ſects, there is nothing corrupting; but connection with the eſtabliſhed church, it ſeems, leaves a foul and indeliable ſtain. Sir, there is ſomething in this a little too hard of digeſtion. The door, however, is not abſolutely debarred againſt me. There is an unfortunate clergyman, who has lately been guilty of adultery, and the cry has been loud, that he ſhould be depoſed. Were he really depoſed, ſir, I ſuppoſe there can be no doubt, that, being no longer in orders, he would be eligible to a ſeat in this houſe. To ſay that an adulterer is diſqualified to be a member of parliament, might be productive of conſequences ſomewhat ſerious. It is maintained, that though a clergyman be excommunicated, his character is only gone. He goes to the devil; but he does not become one of the profane laity. If gentlemen had conſulted the ſeventy-ſecond canon, they would have found, that, if a clergyman ſhould pretend to exorciſe any one, if he ſhould not keep the faſts, if he ſhould preach in the fields, and if he ſhould do, and if he ſhould not do, various other things, he ſhould, for the firſt offence, be ſuſpended; for the ſecond, excommunicated; and, for the third, *depoſed*. Had I then attempted to exorciſe myſelf or others, or had I followed the example of ſome of the advocates of *vital chriſtianity*, I ſhould have been depoſed long ago, and ſhould now be allowed quietly to take my ſeat; but becauſe, like a good ſubject, I choſe to withdraw, without ſtating my reaſons, and thus exciting ſcandal, I am for ever ineligible. What, if I had been tainted with infidelity, and tried to make proſelytes? I ſhould then be as competent to ſit here as any member preſent. This reminds me of an occurrence which took place in this city a few years ago. A poor girl, in very indigent circumſtances, and quite deſtitute, went to a director of the Magdalene hoſpital, and applied to be taken in. 'Why,' ſaid he; 'it is true there is now a vacancy, and I have no objection to admit you; but firſt let me hear ſomething of your hiſtory? Who ſeduced you? Where have

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have you lived ſince?'—'Seduced me, ſir? exclaimed the girl; 'I am as innocent as the child unborn.'—'You won't do for us, then,' replied the governor; 'if you wiſh for admittance here, you muſt go and qualify.'"

In the courſe of this ſeſſion, a bill, introduced into the houſe of commons by lord William Ruſſell, was paſſed into a law, for enabling juſtices, in quarter-ſeſſions, to relieve poor houſekeepers from the payment of the poor's rates.

There appeared the ſame ſpirit of caution and reluctance, which had been manifeſted for ſeveral years back, to the paſſing of divorce bills; but ſeveral divorces were granted, the caſes being very flagrant.

Under the head of political economy, and general correction and improvement, we may arrange the proceedings of parliament, reſpecting the meaſures and the conduct of the ſervants of the crown. Of theſe, ſome tended to the encouragement of merit by honour and reward; others to the diſcouragement of demerit, by motions for inquiries, tending to puniſhment, at leaſt to cenſure.

The thanks of the houſe of commons, on the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, April 16, after a very ſuitable and elegant ſpeech, were voted *nemine contradicente*, "to admiral ſir Hyde Parker, for the able and judicious diſpoſition made by him of the force under his command, by which the Daniſh ſhips of war, forming the line of defence of the harbour of Copenhagen, were taken or deſtroyed, on the 2d day of April, 1801."—It was reſolved, alſo, *nemine contradicente*, "That the thanks of that houſe be given to vice-admiral lord Nelſon, knight of the moſt honourable order of the Bath, rear-admiral Graves, and colonel Stewart, commanding his majeſty's 49th regiment of foot, and a corps of riflemen, and to the ſeveral captains and officers of the fleet, under the command of admiral ſir Hyde Parker, for their bravery and gallant conduct, on the ſaid moſt glorious occaſion; and that admiral ſir Hyde Parker do ſignify the ſame to them."—Reſolved farther, *nemine contradicente*, "That the houſe of commons did highly approve and acknowledge the ſervices of the ſeamen, marines, and ſoldiers, on board the ſhips, under the command of admiral ſir Hyde Parker, in the late glorious victory over the Daniſh fleet and batteries, which formed the line of defence at the entrance of the harbour of Copenhagen; and that the captains of the ſeveral ſhips do ſignify the ſame to their reſpective crews, and do thank them for their gallant behaviour: and it was ordered that Mr. Speaker do ſignify the ſaid reſolutions to admiral ſir Hyde Parker." Orders were alſo given for monuments to be erected, at the public expenſe, in the cathedral church, St. Paul's, London, to the memory of captain James Robert Moſſe, and captain Edward Riou, who fell glorioufly in the engagement of April 2, 1801. A liberal penſion was conferred by his majeſty on captain ſir Thomas B. Thompſon; admiral Graves was inveſted with the order of the Bath; and a new ſtep in the peerage given to lord Nelſon.

Theſe expreſſions of the public gratitude and admiration gave reſpect to an action of which we have already given ſome account. What follows, refers to a battle equally glorious

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glorious in its nature, and important in its consequences, and which happened, too, very nearly about the same time in Egypt, where the British general died, like Epaminondes, or our own general Wolf, in the arms of victory.

The chancellor of the exchequer, on the 20th of May, delivered to the house of commons a message from the crown, stating, that "His majesty having taken into his royal consideration the eminent and signal merits of the late right honourable general sir Ralph Abercromby, knight of the most honourable order of the Bath, during a long life spent in the service of his country, and terminated by a glorious death, had thought proper, in testimony of regard to the memory of that distinguished officer, to confer on his relict, lady Abercromby, the dignity of a barony of Great Britain, by the title of baroness Abercromby, of Aboukir, with remainder to the heirs male of the body of the said sir Ralph Abercromby; and being farther desirous of granting to lady Abercromby, and the two next succeeding heirs male of the body of sir Ralph Abercromby, to whom the title of baron Abercromby shall descend, a nett annuity of 2000*l.* per annum, recommended it to his faithful commons to consider of a proper method of enabling his majesty to grant such annuity, and of extending, securing, and settling the same, in such manner as might be thought most effectual for the benefit of the family of the said sir Ralph Abercromby."—On the day thereafter, Mr. Addington moved, 1. That the sum of 2000*l.* be granted out of the consolidated fund to his majesty, for the purposes mentioned in his majesty's gracious message. 2. To fill up the blank for the date of its commencement, with the words, 24th of March, 1801: being satisfied that it would be the wish of every one that it should take place from the day on which the country was deprived of the services of that gallant officer.—These resolutions were agreed to *nemine contradicente*. It was also agreed, that a monument should be erected to sir Ralph Abercromby, at the public expense, in Westminster-abbey.

The honours that followed the gallant actions of Aboukir and the Sound, seemed to infuse a tincture of respectability into the general mass of the new nobility.

The censorial powers of the legislature were exercised, on the other hand, in motions of a very different tendency from that of those just noticed.

February 10. A motion was made in the house of commons, by Mr. Sturt, for an inquiry into the expedition against Ferrol, of which some account has been given in our last volume.

Sir James Murray Pulteney vindicated his conduct in that expedition, on the principle that the enemy were in too great strength for him to hazard an attempt for its reduction, either by blockade or attack, especially as other objects were in view besides the reduction of Ferrol. Sir James's conduct was, in truth, not only prudent but magnanimous. The motion for inquiry was negatived by 144 against 75.

House of lords, March 20th. Lord Darnley had repeatedly given notice of a motion for an inquiry into the state of the nation. He now alluded to the manner and circumstances in which it had been delayed. It was during the indisposition of the king,

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king, now happily removed. Whatever difference of opinion might prevail on political ſubjects, lord Darnley was confident that all were unanimous, in admiring the character of the ſovereign, and returning thanks to heaven, that he was ſtill preſerved, to ſet them an example of every virtue. The other grounds, on which he had deferred his motion, were of a different kind. He had yielded to the ſolicitations of miniſters, and of their lordſhips; but he ſaw no reaſon, why the motion might not be immediately inſtituted. A change had taken place in his majeſty's councils: but the objects of his motion were ſuch, that the complete formation of the new miniſtry was not neceſſary to the diſcuſſion of it. Beſides, he could not perſuade himſelf that there was any difference between the five: their perſons were different, but their principles and views the ſame. The principal actor had withdrawn behind the curtain; but he now played the part of prompter, and thoſe whom he had ſubſtituted in his ſtead, ſpoke and acted as he directed. The grounds of the motion he was about to make, were principally three: the conduct of the war; the ſtate of our finances; and our relations with foreign powers. On each of theſe ſubjects his lordſhip expatiated; and arraigned the conduct of his majeſty's miniſters ſeverely. A ſtrict ſcrutiny, he ſaid, muſt be made into the paſt, or the future would reſemble it. He concluded, with moving, "That the houſe do now reſolve itſelf into a committee, to conſider of the ſtate of the nation." The motion was ſupported by lord Holland, the earl of Carliſle, the earl of Fife, the earl of Suffolk, the earl of Moira, the earl of Carnarvon, the earl Fitzwilliam, the marquis of Lanſdown, the marquis of Buckingham, lord Elſon, and the duke of Bedford. Lord Eldon ſaid, that the late miniſters had acted, juſt as if a general ſhould, in a day of battle, get into his poſt-chaiſe, and drive off. The motion, on the other hand, was oppoſed by the duke of Montroſe, the earl of Weſtmoreland, lord Grenville, earl Campden, the lord chancellor, lord Auckland, and lord Hobart. On a diviſion of the houſe, the motion was negatived by 107 voices againſt 25.

A motion to the ſame effect was made in the houſe of commons, March 25, by Mr. Grey. It was ſeconded by Mr. Whitbread, and ſupported by the earl Temple, ſir William Young, and Mr. Fox. It was oppoſed by Mr. Elliſon, Mr. May, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Addington, and above all, in a very long ſpeech, by Mr. Dundas, in which he ſet himſelf principally to ſhew, that in the preſent war, Great Britain had been governed by juſt principles, and that the war, compared with any other period of war in the annals of our hiſtory, had been the moſt ſucceſsful and glorious. Mr. Fox having repelled ſome ſneers of Mr. Pitt, who ſpoke of him as a *new member*, and of the conceſſions he had, while himſelf a miniſter, made to the empreſs of Ruſſia in 1782, turned to the long ſpeech of Mr. Dundas, and followed him, ſtep by ſtep, through the whole. Of Mr. Dundas's defence of the war, he gave the following abridged account; "Amſterdam had been taken, if ſir Ralph Abercrombie had landed on the 16th inſtead of the 27th of Auguſt. Sir Charles Stuart's diſlike

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diſlike to the Ruſſians, protracted ſir Ralph's departure for the Mediterranean. Ten thouſand Iriſh militia were to come to England, and ten thouſand Engliſh to go to Ireland. Some of their troops wanted their new coats. Some their arms. One expedition ſailed on the 8th of April, took ſhelter on the 13th, and re-ſailed on the 24th. It was deſigned to aſſiſt the Auſtrians, but the Auſtrians would not be aſſiſted. There was no plan or concert between the two courts. An account current with the ſeven years war. Took more ſhips than lord Chatham, and more iſlands. St. Domingo was unhealthy, and rather expenſive; but it was a good market. This war has opened worlds of new markets. Returns, even to a man, of the new-raiſed corps at Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Portugal; and the total of your force, with a moſt comfortable exactneſs. The hiſtory of England, from 1755 to 1762. From Severn Droog to the Havannah. In a word," ſaid Mr. Fox, "ſuch a ſeries of inſulting puerilities as no houſe of parliament was ever before entertained with, under the name of a defence."

Mr. chancellor of the exchequer, Addington, ſaid, that he might poſſibly incur the imputation of preſumption, in riſing immediately after the honourable gentleman who ſpoke laſt. He had thought it incumbent on him, in the former part of the debate, to give way to thoſe gentlemen, againſt whoſe conduct the motion ſeemed to be particularly directed. After a modeſt apology for accepting the office he now he filled, ſtated, and reaſoned on the ground of the maritime right aſſerted by this country; and, having referred to the exceptions created by exiſting treaties, he concluded this topic, by declaring it to be his decided opinion, that the principle for which we were contending, was vital and fundamental: that it could neither be abandoned nor compromiſed. But he declared it to be his utmoſt wiſh, that it ſhould be exerciſed temperately, though firmly, and with as little vexation as poſſible, to the intereſts and feelings of all the maritime ſtates. On the ſubject of peace and war, it had been aſked, how it was poſſible, that the reſtoration of peace could be expected from thoſe who had rejoiced at the failure of the negotiation at Liſle. He would only ſay, that he had never expreſſed any ſuch ſentiment; and he could truly aver, that he had never entertained it. The queſtion muſt be one of terms, and of terms only. And, without calling in queſtion the ſincerity of the French government, he was ſure that he ſhould meet the ſentiments of the houſe, in ſtating, that it would juſtly be diſcredited, by the advancement of any claims that might be inconſiſtent with the ſecurity, and honour of this country. For his colleagues and himſelf, he aſked for no confidence but what was ſtrictly conſtitutional. For himſelf, he declared that he would occupy no party ground, but that he would throw himſelf intirely upon that houſe, and on the country. On a diviſion of the houſe, Mr. Gray's motion was rejected by 291 againſt 105.

June 2. A motion was made in the houſe of commons, by Mr. F. Jones, "That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, that he would be graciouſly pleaſed to communicate

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municate to his faithful commons, by whose advice, instructions, dated 15th December, 1799, were given to the commander-in-chief of his majesty's fleet in the Mediterranean, enjoining him not to consent, on any account, to the returning of the French army from Egypt to France, or to their capitulation in any other manner, than, jointly, to allied powers employed against them; or upon any other terms, than that of giving up their arms, and surrendering as prisoners of war, to the allied powers so employed; and on no account, to consent to the return of the French army in Egypt, to France, or to their capitulations: by which instructions, his faithful commons, humbly conceived, that the grand object of peace had been postponed, and the seat of the present calamitous, unfortunate, and expensive war, had been transferred to the very distant coasts of Egypt, where there had already been a prodigious expenditure of English treasure, and English blood; and that at a time when the hostile preparations in the ports of France, threatened an invasion of these realms; and when our good and old ally Portugal, was about to sink under the dominion of the French republic, in consequence of that army, which might have defended Portugal being detatched to Egypt; and, moreover, when the dangerous question of the searching neutral ships, had raised up a new Baltic war; when Prussia had seized on the Electorate of Hanover, and its treasures: and all these unfortunate and alarming circumstances, grown out of the breach of the convention of El-Arish; and, furthermore, that by the ensuing these said instructions, a dreadful consequence might arise to our Indian empire, and that it might fall into irretrievable ruin; and its fall might crush the credit and destroy the revenue of this country, whereby, at the present alarming crisis of the destinies of the world, the laws of humanity, and the laws of nations, had been grosly violated, his majesty's government degraded, and the policy, character, and faith of this renowned empire, rendered contemptible in the eyes of Europe." We have not thought it necessary to follow Mr. Jones in all his motions respecting the convention of El-Arish; it is, however, proper to observe, that this was the fifth time of his bringing it forward, that the reader may understand the meaning and force of what was said, on the present occasion, by

Lord Hawkesbury. The arguments, he said, of the honourable gentleman, had been so often answered, that he would not now enter into any reasoning on the subject, and thereby delay the house from the consideration of important business. But Mr. Windham called to Mr. Jones's recollection, the principal of those arguments by which his allegations of a breach of faith to our allies, and the impolicy of not permitting the French to evacuate Egypt, had been combated. He supposed that by allies, the honourable gentleman meant the Turks. But he should recollect, that we had other allies; namely, the Austrians. And, what would they have said, if, when they were contending against the French, in Italy, with forces so equally balanced, that the contest was at last decided by a battle, or rather

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rather the fraction of a battle, for three-fourths of the battle was in favour of the Auſtrians. What would they have ſaid, if, when matters were ſo nearly balanced, we had ſuffered 15.000, or more, of the beſt troops of France, to have been thrown into the ſcale againſt them? It had been ſtated, that the French would have been landing in France, not in Italy. But that would have made a difference of only three weeks; they certainly would have been marched into Italy. By adhering to the convention of El-Ariſh, after intelligence had been received, that it had been ſanctioned by ſir Sydney Smith, we had ſhewn the world that we preferred a ſtrict adherence to our public faith, to any advantages, however great, which we might have gained by a violation of it. Mr. Windham proceeded to eſtimate the mighty advantages that we had gained by the ſeries of engagements, particularly that of March 21, near Alexandria, in point of reputation. "Notwithſtanding the courage and bravery formerly diſplayed by the Britiſh troops, in the expedition to Holland, in operations both offenſive and defenſive, yet the circumſtances of the war, did certainly throw a kind of ſhade over our army. The glory of our navy was ſo great, that every other ſervice was overlooked. All our attention was engaged on one ſide, and we were, as it were, lame of one leg. It was under theſe circumſtances that the events in Egypt occurred. Whole wars might paſs over without affording an opportunity of fairly meaſuring our ſtrength with the enemy. But in Egypt the very ſcene ſeemed to be choſen for a fair trial of ſtrength. The two armies ſeemed to be, as it were, retired from the world. They were both left without any other reſource than what they could draw from their own courage and diſcipline. They had no allies to ſhare the merit of victory, or bear the diſgrace of defeat: their motto ſeemed to be, "*Væ victi*," and all they aſked, was a clear ſtage, and no favour. Who were thoſe that we had conquered? not Greeks or Copts, not Batavians or Ciſalpines, but the tried, the choſen, the beſt troops of France. If the French ſhould, indeed, invade us, would our atchievements in Egypt have no effect, in inſpiring the people of England with confidence, and throwing a damp upon the enemy? "This was, indeed, a great and animating ſubject, and it was treated, by Mr. Windham, with ſuitable eloquence. After a variety of other conſiderations, in the ſame epic, but not inflated, ſtyle, with the paſſage, juſt quoted, tending to do juſtice to the military character of the country, he ſaid, "that this was a ſubject upon which our children, and grandchildren, would dwell with pride. They would talk of Egypt, and of Abercromby, with as much exultation as Engliſhmen had been accuſtomed, till theſe degenerate days, to ſpeak of Creſſy and of Agincourt." With reſpect to the queſtion now before the houſe, he felt no anxiety. Every argument that had been repeatedly advanced, had been repeatedly anſwered; and, therefore, he ſhould not treſpaſs any longer on the attention of the houſe. Mr. Windham was followed, on the ſame ſide, by Mr. Pitt, Mr Elliſon, and ſir George Dallas.

Mr.

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Mr. Jones's motion, on the other hand, was ſupported by Mr. Grey, and Mr. Robſon. It was negatived by 138 voices againſt 22.

It now only remains, on the ſubject of parliamentary proceedings, that we give a ſummary account of what has been tacked, for ſeveral years back, as a kind of poſtſcript to the affairs of the Britiſh parliament: Mr. Dundas's budget, or ſtatement of the affairs of India.—According to Mr. Dundas's ſtatement of accounts, 23d of July, 1800, the ſituation of the company, notwithſtanding a heavy and expenſive war in India, was now better by 969,000*l.* than had been predicted by the eſtimate of laſt budget, brought forward on the 28th of March: from which it had appeared that the nett improvement in the company's affairs, ſince the budget of 1799, was 4,108,527*l.* And as peace was reſtored in that quarter, he had no doubt but India would experience a long and increaſing proſperity. From a general ſtatement of the company's affairs, he repreſented that they were bettered in the 13 years, from 1786 to 1799, in the amount of 11,882,000*l.* But Mr. Huſſey inſiſted, that it ſignified nothing what he or any body elſe ſaid of the affairs of the company: for they had ſtated theſe affairs themſelves. And from their ſtatement, it appeared, that, on the affairs at home, the company, comparing the ſtatement now, with the ſtatement 20 years ago, were, inſtead of being better, ſix millions worſe.

Mr. Dundas ſaid, that this was making no allowance at all for the increaſe of the wealth of the company in dead ſtock in India: for warehouſes, for ſhipping, for forts, and above all to territorial revenues, which would amount to many millions ſterling.

That the dead ſtock and territorial revenue of the company, in India, were very much enlarged, Mr. Huſſey was very ready to allow. But he would ſay this, and it was his duty to the public to ſay it, that if the company were to break up to morrow, and to convert all they had into caſh, both in India and Europe, and then to make a dividend to the firſt adventurer, inſtead of having enough to pay, he believed there would be many millions deficient. He ſpoke on a compariſon of twenty years on their home account, and their own account of affairs: from which it appears there were ſix millions minus. A long ſtring of reſolutions, however, was agreed to (for how could the propoſitions they contained be refuted) tending to ſhew that the company's affairs were in the higheſt degree proſperous. Such was the view, exhibited by Mr. Dundas, of our India concerns in 1800.

Houſe of commons, June 12, 1801.—The houſe having reſolved itſelf into a committee on the affairs of India, Mr. Dundas roſe and ſpoke at great length of the Britiſh affairs in India, particularly as they were connected with finance, and of his own conduct during the 17 years that he had been at the head of the board of control, and exhibited particular, and general views of the revenues and charges of our different India eſtabliſhments for 1800, and the expectations that were reaſonably to be formed.

The reſult of the whole was, that the company's concerns, in the courſe

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courſe of the year of account now before the committee, 1800-1801, had improved to the amount of 90,765*l.*

To enter more particularly into the India budget, could not afford matter either of amuſement or uſeful information to the generality of our readers. Nor would gentlemen, who are intereſted in thoſe ſtatements, thank us for a fuller account; unleſs indeed we were to ſacrifice fifty pages of our ſpace for the admiſſion of the whole. We might plead another excuſe: which is, that the ſtatements of this, as well of the preceding, and ſome other years, have been falſified in ſeveral inſtances, as will appear in our next volume, by ſubſequent accounts. It is by no means intended to inſinuate that Mr. Dundas did not fairly exhibit his accounts, according to his own belief and the beſt of his information. If any one wiſhes for minute and authentic accounts of all that relates to Mr. Dundas's adminiſtration of Indian affairs, he will naturally have recourſe to the journals of the houſe of commons, or to the annual volumes of parliamentary debates.

But, though we avoid, in a ſummary hiſtory of Europe, long details of debts, inveſtments, aſſets, charges, revenues, ſurpluſſes, deficits, intereſts, ſales, loans, cuſtoms, farms, goods ſold and unſold, &c. &c. it will neither be tedious nor unintereſting, to give a view of the grand and leading features of Mr. Dundas's plan for the improvement of the Britiſh affairs in India; on which he built the moſt ſanguine expectations.

Firſt, An arrangement abroad, ſo that a full million from the ſurplus of the revenues ſhould, at the commencement of the execution of the plan, be applicable to the purpoſe of inveſtments.

Secondly, That the inveſtments from India and China ſhould amount, at prime coſt, to four millions annually, in equal proportions.

Thirdly, That during the firſt four years from that time, the company ſhould avail themſelves of the power they already had, under the act, for augmenting their capital ſtock to the extent of ſix millions, at the rate of half a million annually, which, it was ſuppoſed, would realize one million ſterling.

Fourthly, That the additional money, ſo raiſed, ſhould be applied excluſively to the liquidation of the preſent Indian debt at intereſt, either by increaſing remittances in bullion or exports to India, to that amount, or by defraying additional bills drawn from India for the ſame purpoſe.

Fifthly, That the extinction of that debt, now calculated to amount to fourteen millions ſterling, ſhould be carried on, at the rate of one million annually, till the part of it, termed the decennial loan ſhould become payable, which was expected to take place on or about the year 1807-8: and that the ſum then payable on account of Indian debt, which was ſtated at 3,500,000*l.* ſhould be diſcharged in that year: on which ſuppoſitions, the debts at intereſt abroad, would then be reduced to 4,500,000*l.*: at which amount, it might be thought expedient to keep them ſtationary. The gradual reduction of the debt would add to the ſurplus of the revenues, by the diminution of the intereſt.

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interest. And, in the year 1808-9, the sum of two millions sterling might be applied to the investments. The application of the surplus, thus increasing from year to year, would, of course, lessen the demand of India on the home treasury: so that a balance of costs could not fail of increasing to an immense amount.

May these predictions be verified by experience! and not undergo the too common fate of the great plans of political economy, founded on the most favourable views, and the hypothesis of peace, prudence, and an active zeal for the common good!

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CHAP. XI.

Diſcuſſions concerning a free Trade between Great Britain and India.—Motion in the Houſe of Commons, relative to this, by Sir William Pulteney.—Diſcuſſions and Debates thereon in the India-Houſe.—Hiſtory, or Origin, of the Queſtion.—Difference of Opinion between the Eaſt-India-Houſe and the Board of Control.—Letter from Mr. Dundas to the Court of Directors, containing his Opinion and Advice reſpecting the Mode of carrying on the Trade between Great Britain and India:—Taken into Conſideration by a Committee of the Court of Directors.—Report of that Committee.—Conſequent Reſolutions.—Second Letter to the Court of Directors from Mr. Dundas.—Letter to the Directors on the Subject of free Trade from the Governor-General of Britiſh India, the Marquis of Welleſley.—Taken into Conſideration by a Committee of the Court of Directors.—Report of that Committee.—Motion in the India-Houſe for the Production of printed Papers reſpecting a free Trade with India.—Debates thereon.—Motion negatived.—Sir William Pulteney's Motion in the Houſe of Commons carried.—Prorogation of Parliament.

ON the ſame day that Mr. Dundas produced his ſtatements, reſpecting the affairs of Britiſh India, ſir William Pulteney called the attention of the houſe to a ſubject which appeared to him to be of the higheſt importance, as affecting the commercial and maritime intereſts of this country. His intention was, to move for the production of a number of papers reſpecting the trade between India and Europe, printed by order of the directors, which he conceived to be neceſſary to put the houſe in poſſeſſion of certain facts reſpecting the trade between Great Britain and India. The object he had in view, was not, in any degree, to interfere with the monopoly which parliament had granted to the Eaſt-India-company. There was, however, a ſurplus trade, beyond what the company had the means of carrying on, and great benefit would reſult to India, and the manufactures of this country, if that ſurplus trade were allowed to be imported into this country in India-built ſhips. But, before we proceed to give an account of what paſſed on this ſubject in the houſe of commons, it will be proper, as the queſtion of a free trade with India is of vaſt moment, both commercial and political, and likely to draw more and more the public attention, to take ſome notice of the previous diſcuſſions reſpecting it in the India-houſe; and, firſt of all, of the hiſtory, or origin, of that queſtion. The profits ariſing from the

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the regular commerce of the company are extremely ſmall, ſeldom amounting to more than ſeventy or eighty thouſand pounds a year more than common intereſt for the joint ſtock employed in that trade. At the ſame time, the advantages ariſing from contracts for building ſhips, furniſhing ſtores, and from patronage of one ſort or another, are immenſe. This patronage, neceſſarily, is in the hands of the ſtockholders, either as directors, or voters in a general court. It was from this cauſe, that the violent conteſts about the old ſhipping intereſt, which have been ſo earneſtly diſcuſſed ſince 1785, originated. One party contended for the continued employment of the old builders of ſhips, at their own prices. The other maintained, that the company ought to avail itſelf of competition, and contract, where they could make a contract at the cheapeſt rate. Though low prices and competition wear a popular and plauſible aſpect, the old ſhipping intereſt were nor deficient in combating the arguments of the party who recommended the employment of the cheapeſt ſhips, by arguments, not ſo popular, but not, indeed, leſs plauſible. In anſwer to the publications of Mr. Anthony Burgh and others, whom, to ſave circumlocution, they ſtyled *projectors*, they publiſhed a pamphlet,* in 1886, ſtating, among a variety of conſiderations favourable to their cauſe, "that under the old ſyſtem, the affairs of the Eaſt-India-company had taken root, grown up, and flouriſhed greatly: that in all innovations, the remote and unforeſeen conſequences are uſually of infinitely more conſequence than the attainment of their immediate object, and that conſequences of the moſt dangerous nature might poſſibly ariſe out of the propoſed change in the ſyſtem of the company's ſhipping. But that ſuch conſequences would ariſe in part, was more than probable. The projectors would, in the conſtruction of their veſſels, ſtudy cheapneſs; whereas, that of their preſent ſhips were ſubject to ſtrict regulation in their conſtruction, and inſpection when conſtructed. The merchandiſe of the company, would neither be ſo ſafe in veſſels furniſhed by the projectors, nor in the hands of unknown, and, probably, in many inſtances, neceſſitous adventurers employed by the projectors, as captains and officers. The great and wealthy body of ſhips owners, gave a conſolidation, ſtrength, and permanency to the general affairs of the company, and their fine ſhips were many of them ſo framed, and more were offered to be conſtructed, on ſuch a plan, as not only to defend themſelves againſt attacks, in caſe of war, but even, occaſionally, to add to the ſtrength of the Britiſh navy. An enlargement in the ſize of the ſhips to be built in future, would enable the owners to make a reduction in the freight. Every thing poſſible ſhould be done in this way. But, on the whole, for the ſake of the national intereſts, as well as thoſe of the company, care ſhould be taken to unite with preſent economy, permanent ſecurity. In the preſent management of the company, there was an unity, harmony, and even ſplendour, that had an impoſing air on the minds of the

* Publiſhed by Debrett.

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natives; an oppoſite ſyſtem would lead to diſunion, diſtraction, endleſs adventure, and finally to colonization.

In the frequent diſcuſſions, that took place on this ſubject in the India-houſe, the queſtion was always carried by vaſt majorities in favour of the old ſhip-owners.—The ſame intereſt prevented the employment of ſhips built in India, and, as much as poſſible, all encroachments on the monopoly of the company, by what has been termed free-traders. Mr. Dundas and the board of control uniformly differed in opinion from the majority of the India-houſe; but, as it was not the buſineſs of that board to interfere directly in matters of commerce, Mr. Dundas contented himſelf with giving his opinion, with the reaſons on which it was founded. In a letter to the chairman of the directors, dated Somerſet-place, April 2, 1800, on the ſubject of private trade and India-built ſhipping, he declared his ſatisfaction as to the propriety of continuing a monopoly of the trade with India, in the hands of the Eaſt-India-company. "If the trade were laid open, the advantages expected to ariſe from thence, were, at beſt, very problematical, and would certainly be very precarious and ſhort-lived; but the queſtion was not to be treated merely as commercial. The ſame principles which proved the neceſſity of the preſent form and mode of Indian government, evinced the neceſſity of the monopoly of trade. By the commercial capital of the company at home, acting in connection with the public revenues under their adminiſtration abroad, they had naturally aided and adminiſtered to the wants of each other; and the reſult had been the fortunate achievement of thoſe *brilliant events, on the ſucceſs of which the exiſtence of the government, the territorial wealth, and the trade of India depended.*"*

On the ſubject of freights, he was of opinion, that this ought not to be the excluſive object of the company's attention, and that the ſame kind of ſhips, built under the ſame inſpection and regulations, ſhould continue to be employed as thoſe hitherto employed; and that a freight, fully adequate to ſecure that advantage, ought not to be churliſhly withheld. As to the company's monopoly, that it was a monopoly attended with theſe two material circumſtances: 1ſt. That the exportable produce of India exceeded what, at preſent, the capital of the company was capable of embracing. 2d. That the monopoly of the Eaſt-India-company did not reſt on principles of colonial excluſion; but, if the trade carried on by the company be, of neceſſity, limited by their capital, what was to become of the ſurplus trade? Was it to be left excluſively to foreign nations? or ſo modified in the exerciſe of it, as to open that ſurplus market to the capital of Britiſh ſubjects? From a conſideration of all circumſtances, Mr. Dundas drew the concluſion, that the ſurplus produce of India, beyond what the appropriated capital of the company could bring home, ſhould be conſidered as the means of transferring the fortunes of ſervants in India to Great Britain; and that the

* From thoſe brilliant events, in the judgement of others, at this time, a very different reſult was to be apprehended.

commerce

commerce should be managed there, either by the parties themselves interested in it, or by their agents, acting under the licence, and subject to the control and regulations of the East-India-company.

With regard to the policy and beneficial tendency of that measure, Mr. Dundas referred the directors to the unanimous opinion of all their ablest servants in India, who had, from time to time, and in the most explicit terms, pointed out to the directors the expediency of that indulgence, both with a just attention to the interests of their servants in India, and with a view to make Great Britain the great emporium of the trade of Asia. This measure would not diminish the company's shipping a single ton: for the company ought, and would send out, if the measure were not adopted, just as much of the regular British-built India shipping, as should be necessary to bring home the whole of their investment, and no more. He also observed, on this head, that those interested in the regular shipping of the East-India-company, would do well to consider the benefits they already enjoyed, in place of endeavouring to cramp and check the just pretensions of others. They should also recollect, that it had always been considered as a very problematical question, how far, consistently with national honour, so much of the ship timber of this country ought to be appropriated to its commercial concerns, in the manner practised by the builders of India shipping. We had a national resource in India, which ought to lead to the very reverse of any invidious or unjust discouragement being given to the ship-building of India. To inquire how far it would be right to hold our Indian possessions, on principles of colonial monopoly, would be to enter on a discussion foreign to the question in hand. It was sufficient to observe, that, in point of fact, it was thought expedient, for the interests of the empire at large, that our East-India possessions should not be regulated on the principles of colonial exclusion; and, therefore, that no part of the subjects of Great Britain could be permitted to set up a separate interest of their own against that general policy.

In contending for the indulgence proposed to the British subjects resident in India, he was contending for a material national interest, which was this: that their fortunes, capitals created in India, should be transferred from that country to this, in a manner most beneficial for themselves, and the kingdom at large, in place of being transferred through the medium of commerce by foreigners, and thereby adding to the navigation and capital of other countries. There was not a single circumstance, in which this was applicable to the case of merchants in this country. The only effect of giving such an indulgence to merchants resident in this country, would be, a temptation to withdraw a part of the capital of the country from a more profitable trade, and more beneficial application of it, in order to divert it to another trade, less profitable to themselves, and less beneficial to the public. Without a single reason, either of private justice, or public policy, it would be introducing a rival capital into India against the remittance trade of the East-India-company, and in competition likewise with those individuals, whose capital, by the pro-

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posed indulgence, it was wished to transfer to Great Britain.

With regard to agents, provided they were licenced by the company, and subjected themselves to the regulations, which the company might see cause to establish for the conduct of the agents of India, he saw no reason, why those agents might not be permitted to exercise their agency for the behoof of their constituents, and even of foreigners, in any of the territories of India. It was clearly beneficial for the interests of India, that foreigners should rather employ British agents, residing under the protection of the company in India, than that those foreign nations should establish, in any part of India, agents of their own. In the former case, they would be under the control of the company, and bound to adhere to such rules as the company might think proper to lay down for the conduct of agency; but there could not exist any such control or restraint over the agents of the other description.—As to the agents to be employed at home, in the management of the private trade of individuals from India, and taking care of their interests in the cargoes of the returning ships, he did not see the use of any interference on the part of the company. The great interest to be attended to on their part, was, that there should be no goods from India that were not deposited in the company's warehouses; and that the goods so imported, should be exposed at the company's sales, agreeably to the rules prescribed for that purpose."

Mr. Dundas's letter, of which we have here given the substance, was submitted to the consideration of a committee of nine of the directors; Mr. Inglis, Mr. Scott, sir Francis Baring, Mr. Lushington, Mr. Robarts, Mr. Bosanquet, Mr. Roberts, Mr. Grant, and Mr. Parry; who, January 27, 1801, made their report, extending to the length of a full printed sheet, of such a type and page as that now before the reader. In that report, the committee took a comprehensive view of the nature, the grounds, and the consequences, of the enlargement of trade, which had been contended for, of the extent to which it might be safe and expedient to carry it, and of the limits to which, not merely the rights of the company, but, with more commanding energy, the interests of the empire required to be prescribed to it. The report being read, and unanimously approved by the court of directors, on the 4th of February they came to sundry resolutions to the number of fifteen.

Of these resolutions, the first, second, third, fourth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth, entirely accorded with Mr. Dundas's opinions, as he declared in a letter to the chairman, 21st March, 1801. It is only of the remaining resolutions, therefore, that it may be proper briefly to state the import. The fifth resolution bore, that the company, as far as consisted with the necessary course of their own affairs, political and commercial, had given effect to the regulations established by the legislature in 1793, though at a considerable expense to themselves; and that all allegations of the growth of the foreign trade with India, by means of any misapplication or evasion of those regulations, on the part of the company, were unfounded. The sixth, that the clandestine trade had not, of late years, increased, but diminished; and that the amount

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of the clandeſtine trade of Bengal could not, on an average of four years, ending with 1798-9, reaſonably be eſtimated to have exceeded twenty-five lacks of rupees per annum. The ſeventh, that hence, as well as from a variety of other evidence, it might be ſafely concluded, that any increaſe which had taken place in the courſe of the war, in the trade of foreigners with our ſettlements, was the increaſe of a trade carried on, *bona fide*, for their own account, and, in a great degree with ſpecie, which they imported to India, and with which they paid for the goods they exported: a trade which ought, in ſound policy, to be permitted. The eighth, that the trade carried on with Europe, from the Indian ſettlements of our enemies, the French, Dutch, and Spaniards, which was ſaid to have greatly increaſed through the late miſmanagement of the company, flouriſhed, long before the preſent times, in a greater degree than it does now; that it could not have been depreſſed by any means within the company's power, and that it would not be a wiſe policy, under the notion of bringing that trade to our ports to nouriſh, as we thus ſhould, the ſource from whence it proceeded. With regard to theſe reſolutions, Mr. Dundas only pauſed in giving his opinion, from not having before him the particular documents and materials on which they were founded.

The thirteenth reſolution contained the principles and details of the meaſure on which the court of directors were diſpoſed to act with the government or nation. They agreed in opinion with Mr. Dundas, as to the expediency of affording to Britiſh reſidents, who might chooſe to convey their property to Europe in goods, whatever means, in addition to thoſe already ſubſiſting, might be fairly ſufficient to induce them to conſign thoſe goods immediately to the mother-country. For bringing the whole trade, formed by that aggregate capital, as well as by the conſignments of European manufactures, directly to the port of London, they made ſeveral propoſitions: among which the principal were, that, in addition to the quantity of three thouſand tons of ſhipping, now annually allotted to the exports of individuals from India, four or five thouſand tons more, or as much as might be wanted, ſhould be aſſigned, and that the ſhipping thus annually employed, ſhould be wholly applied to the private traders, and ſail from India directly for the port of London, at fixed periods, within the fair-weather ſeaſon. That all commodities, of the produce of the continent, or of the Britiſh territories in India, ſhould be permitted to be laden on thoſe ſhips, excepting only piece-goods, raw ſilk, and ſaltpetre, which ſhould not be laden, except by ſpecial licence from the company, or their ſervants abroad. That the goods exported on private account, from India, ſhould be brought to the company's warehouſes in London, and thence to their ſales, in the regular order, ſubject to the charge of three per cent: now allowed to the company, for lading, warehouſing, and ſelling private goods.—That the ſhips to be employed in that ſervice ſhould be built for the purpoſe by the company, and ſhould be of the deſcription beſt calculated for the propoſed trade. The rate of freight to be the ſame with that of the ſhips chartered for the year

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current to the company. That when the private goods provided for exportation from India should not serve to fill all the ships sent out for them, the company should put gross goods into those ships on their own account. That if, at any time, the tonnage provided by the company for private exports should not be sufficient for all the goods prepared for exportation, it should be allowable for the governments abroad, on the part of the company, to freight Indian ships for the conveyance of such goods as could not be otherwise accommodated; and, finally, that no person should be admitted to embark in this trade, who should not be licenced by the company to reside in India.

Mr. Dundas, in his letter of the 21st of March, already quoted, admitted, "That if the basis on which this resolution proceeded were admitted to be good, the details seemed to be aptly devised for the due execution of the principle; but, on this point, he differed in opinion from the directors. He was still an advocate for the admission of private and India-built ships into the commerce between that country and Great Britain. It was his intention to have entered, in his letter, at large into the subject; but since he had begun to write, he had received, and carefully perused, a letter of the 30th of September, 1800, recently transmitted to the court of directors from the government-general of India; and, as that letter had, with clearness and perspicuity, ably detailed and demonstrated (meaning the propriety of) those opinions which he had, from time to time, taken the liberty of laying before the court of directors, on the subject of Indian trade, he should consider it an unnecessary waste of time, if he were to trouble the directors with a repetition of the topics therein stated." On the fourteenth and fifteenth resolutions, Mr. Dundas did not make any observations. In the former, the committee expressed, in strong terms, their conviction, that the proposals that had been brought forward by certain descriptions of men for the admission of their ships into the trade and navigation between India and Europe, would involve principles and effects dangerous to the interests both of the company and nation. In the latter, they stated that the fourteen preceding resolutions would be justified by documents, some of them before them, others but lately arrived from India, and not yet perused, they supposed, by Mr. Dundas, with whom they proposed to have a full discussion of the subject.

The marquis of Wellesley's letter, to which Mr. Dundas referred, detailed the particular circumstances that rendered it expedient and necessary to admit private traders into a participation of the East-India commerce. Proprietors of ships, and freighters in India, had considered it to be for their mutual advantage, that they should be left to make their arrangements with each other. Both parties were equally averse to the intervention of the company's agency. On the 5th of October, 1798, was published, in an advertisement, a plan, by which the proprietors of ships were enabled to make a more perfect assortment of the cargoes, to load their ships in the most advantageous and expeditious manner, to dispatch them at the most favourable periods of the season, and to prevent the loss, which, under the plan adopted in conformity

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conformity to the orders of the directors, 26th of May, 1798, the proprietors of ships sustained, by unavoidable delays in the adjustment of accounts, and in the payment of the freight by the company in England. The advantages attending the governor-general's plan, he enumerated. He had entertained a confident expectation, that he should have received, at an early period of the season, the sanction of the court for reverting to the plan of October, 1798; or for adopting some arrangement equally calculated to facilitate and encourage the private trade between India and England. But he had been disappointed in his expectations of receiving an early and seasonable authorization of their final commands; so that, at the usual season for exportation from the port of Calcutta to Europe, the deficiency of the tonnage provided by the company last expected from Europe, reduced them to the absolute necessity of providing a large proportion of Indian tonnage for the service of 1800, in order to secure the conveyance of their investments, and to fulfil their legal obligations.

But this plan of the governor-general was not intended by him merely to answer a temporary exigency. It was his opinion that it should be rendered permanent. From the quantity of private tonnage now in the port of Calcutta, from the state of perfection to which the art of ship-building had already attained in Bengal, promising a still more rapid progress, and supported by abundant and increasing supplies of timber, it was certain, that that port would always be able to furnish tonnage, to whatever extent requisite for conveying to the port of London the trade of the private British merchants of Bengal. The wise policy, the just pretensions, and the increasing commercial resources and political power of Great Britain in India, claimed for her subjects, the largest attainable share in the valuable and extensive commerce of such articles of Indian produce and manufacture, as were necessarily excluded from the company's investment. If the extension of indulgences to the British merchants necessarily involved the admission of numerous British merchants into India, the company's government could always, with less difficulty, controul the operations of the British, than those of foreign agents: while the dangers to be apprehended from the views and designs of foreigners of every description, would be greater than any that could possibly arise from an increased resort of British subjects, under such limitations and restraints as the wisdom of the directors might frame, and the vigilance of their government in India be enabled to enforce. The rapid growth of the foreign trade, during the last season; the number of foreign ships actually in the ports of Calcutta; the alacrity, enterprise, and skill of the foreign agents now assiduously employed in providing cargoes, and the necessary inaction and languor of the British private trade, embarrassed by the restraints of the existing law, created in the mind of lord Wellesley, a serious apprehension, that any further delay in the decision of that momentous question, might occasion evils, of which the remedy might become hereafter, considerably difficult, if not absolutely impracticable.

Under

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Under these impressions, the governor-general, reverting to the plan of October, 1798, published in an advertisement above noticed, republished it on the 19th of September, 1800, at Fort William, and ordered the governments of Fort St. George and Bombay to publish corresponding advertisements, at those presidencies, with such modifications as local circumstances might render indispensably necessary. It would rest with the honourable court whether the plan contained in that advertisement, should be rendered permanent.

The committee appointed to take Mr. Dundas's second letter into consideration, objected to the systematic establishment of any class of private ships, in the commerce and navigation between Great Britain and India, on the same grounds, on which they had disapproved it, as formerly proposed by Mr. Dundas. But the governor-general's plan, they observed, was wider in its extent, and involved still more dangerous consequences than that of the president of the board of controul. It had been hitherto held, that the legitimate and only considerable object, in enlarging the private trade, ought to be the remittance of the fortunes of British residents. Mr. Dundas, in his letter of the 21st of March, fully acceded to this doctrine. But, the governor-general, they observed, on the other hand, distinctly asserted, in one of the 76 paragraphs into which his letter was divided, "That if the capital of the merchants in India, and the remittance of the fortunes of individuals, should not supply funds sufficient for the conduct of the whole private export trade from India to Europe, no dangerous consequence could result from applying to this branch of commerce, capital drawn directly from the British empire to Europe." If the committee could not accede to the principle of Mr. Dundas's plan, much less could they accede to that of the marquis of Wellesley's. The genius of the India commerce, according to his plan, must progressively tend, more and more, towards an unrestrained, and colonial system.

With the same views that influenced sir William Pulteney in the house of commons, Mr. Henchman, in a general court of proprietors of India stock, May 28th, in consequence of a letter subscribed by forty-three proprietors, moved the following resolution, "That this court is highly sensible of the very great importance of the general trade between India and Europe to the political and commercial interest of Great Britain, as well as of the East-India-company; that they lament the wide difference of the opinions entertained on the subject by the court of directors on one side, and the late president of the board of commissioners and the governor-general of India on the other. And anxious that the measures finally to be adopted may be formed on the fullest information and maturest deliberation, and thinking that it may essentially conduce to that desirable end, if the court were assisted by the wisdom and experience of the late governors-general, they recommend to the court of directors to transmit a copy of the printed papers to marquis Cornwallis, earl Macarteney, lord Teignmouth, sir John Macpherson, and Warren Hastings, esq. with a request that they will severally favour the company with a communication of their advice and opinion

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on the ſubject of them." This motion was ſeconded by Mr. Impey, and ſupported by Mr. Scott, Mr. Johnſtone, Mr. Peter Moore, and Mr. Prinſep. Mr. Twining moved an amendment, the purport of which was, "That this court do confirm the unanimous reſolutions of the court of directors on the 4th of February laſt; and that the court of directors do, without delay, act on the principles detailed in thoſe reſolutions." This amendment was ſeconded by Mr. Chiſholm, and ſupported by Mr. Inglis, an American merchant, ſir Stephen Lufhington, ſir Francis Baring, Mr. James Adair, Mr. R. Thornton, Mr. Durant, ſir Hugh Inglis, and Mr. Boſanquet. It was obſerved, by different ſpeakers on the ſide of the amendments, and even by Mr. D. Scott, though on that of the original motion, that of the forty-three proprietors who had called the meeting of the court, many of them were concerned in the private trade to and from India, and conſequently that their opinions could not have the ſame weight as thoſe of impartial and diſintereſted perſons. But this objection was treated lightly, as foreign to the merits of the queſtion. A ſummary ſtatement of the advantages to be derived from a free trade with India, may be given in the words of Mr. Peter Moore, in the preſent debate. The forty-three proprietors, he ſaid, came forward, on the part of the mercantile intereſts of England with this petition to the court. The vaſt empire acquired in India, yields abundantly more products of mercantile enterprize, than the company chooſe to avail themſelves of. Allow us to try our ſkill, and employ our induſtry in ſuch articles as you reject, at preſent allowed to foreigners, our rivals or enemies. Licence us in this abandoned commerce, ſubordinate to your authority, regulations, and controling juriſdiction. We will implicitly conform to them, pay all your dues, and the duties of the ſtate. This indulgence will fill the docks of England with ſhipping, the warehouſes of the company with goods, and repleniſh their exhauſted coffers with money. It will convert your ſpare rooms into an opulent cuſtom-houſe; prove a moſt valuable nurſery for ſeamen; improve the legal income; and unite us amongſt ourſelves in thus proſperouſly conducting thoſe portions of eaſtern commerce, loſt to our nation, but of which our enemies and rivals feel the full value." It was contended, on the other ſide; that, by the meaſure propoſed, a door would be opened to various innovations and dangers, ſome of which, though not the whole, might be anticipated, and which would ultimately involve the coloniſation of India. India, Mr. Chiſholm obſerved, was a country rich in ſoil, genial in climate, extremely populous, unrivalled in manufactures of the moſt valuable kind, cultivated to an uncommon degree by its natives, who were perfectly civilized, enlightened, and religious. Did not every man ſee, that, if coloniſation in India were not rigidly guarded againſt, it would take a much ſhorter time to enable India to aſſert her independance than it coſt America? Mr. Henchman's motion, on a diviſion of the court, was negatived, by 133 votes againſt 80. A ballot, on the amendment, was demanded in the name of nine proprietors. On Friday, June 5th, the

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the ballot took place: when Mr. Henchman's motion was finally loſt.

A different fate attended ſir William Pulteney's motion in the houſe of commons; which, though oppoſed by ſir Francis Baring and Mr. Thornton, was carried without a diviſion.

Sir Francis Baring ſaid, that the tendency of this motion, and thoſe with which it would be probably followed up, would be, to make that ſtorm burſt, which had been forming for ſome time, over the heads of the Eaſt-India company.

Mr. Dundas, after many profeſſions of regard, and anxious concern for the ſtability and proſperity of the Eaſt-India company, ſaid, among various other remarks, that the trade of this country was getting too great for its ſhipping; that the timber in Great Britain was failing; and that he ſhould be very glad if perſons in India could be prevailed on to tranſmit their wealth to this country in the ſhape of ſhips. He hoped that he ſhould live to ſee the time when the ports of England would be filled with ſhips of war built in India, a country where there are immenſe foreſts of every kind of timber, and which would be utterly uſeleſs if not ſo employed.

While the legiſlature manifeſted a diſpoſition to favour a free trade between this country and India, the proceedings of the court of directors, in the courſe of the ſummer, indicated a reſolution, on their part, to maintain, with the greateſt ſtrictneſs the excluſive rights of the company.

The parliament was prorogued by commiſſion, on the 2d of July.

As this was the firſt ſeſſion of the imperial parliament, a very conſiderable degree of curioſity had been excited concerning the influence that the introduction of ſo many Iriſh members might have on the courſe of affairs, and general complexion of parliament. The buſineſs of parliament, as our readers muſt have perceived, was very much increaſed. A great acceſſion of ability and eloquence was made to the common ſtock. There did not appear, as in truth there was not the ſmalleſt reaſon, any ſymptoms of national ſuſpicion, jealouſy, or animoſity. The Iriſh members were not inattentive to the intereſts of their native country, nor yet to thoſe of Great Britain, and the general proſperity and ſecurity of the empire. The Britiſh members were actuated by a ſimilar ſpirit. The minds of the legiſlators, Britiſh and Iriſh, were prepared for a coaleſcence by long habits of reciprocal intereſt, intercourſe, and affection. It was a union, but not a union of ſtrangers. All buſineſs was tranſacted with temper, moderation, and candour.

CHAP.

CHAP. XII.

Extended Sphere of the European Republic.—War in Egypt.—Situation of the French Army there at the Departure of Buonaparte, and the Succeſſion, in the Command, of General Kleber.—Treaty at El-Ariſh for the Evacuation of Egypt.—Policy of Kleber, who ſeeks Occaſion of Quarrel with the Turks.—Refuſal of the Britiſh Government to Sanction the Treaty of El-Ariſh.—Renewal of Hoſtilities.—Battle at Heliopolis.—Inſurrection in Cairo.—Dreadful Outrages of the Inſurgents on the French and other Europeans.—Oppoſite Influence of the Mahomedan Religion, as rightly interpreted, and as underſtood by the Vulgar.—Plan of Nuziff-Baſhaw, the chief Commander of the Turkiſh Forces.—The French Army recalled from different Quarters to quell the Inſurrection.—Bombardment of Cairo.—Various Attempts and Encounters.—Enthuſiaſtic Zeal, Courage, and Activity of the Muſſulmen.—Military Skill and Bravery of the French.—and Intrigues with the different Tribes of the Mahomedans.—Capitulation ſigned by the military Chiefs, but rejected by the Ringleaders of the Inhabitants of Cairo.—Correſpondence and Negotiation between General Kleber and Murad-Bey.—The Contagion of Inſurrection ſpread from Cairo to other Parts of Egypt.—The Inſurrections in thoſe Parts ſubdued.—Artifices of the Leaders to keep up the Spirits of the Inſurgents of Cairo.—Boulac taken by Storm.—An unlimited Pardon proclaimed to all the Inhabitants.—A general Attack on Cairo, which ſurrenders on Capitulation.—The Turkiſh Army, evacuating Cairo, returns to Syria.

THE ſphere of the European republic, formed by the affinities of religion and manners, ſocial, commercial, and literary intercourſe, and by a wiſe and juſt regard and attention to the balance of political power, was now, by the courſe of events, more extended than it ever had been at any former period.—Ruſſia had never ſo much influence on the ſouth of Europe. The Turks never before found their intereſts ſo deeply concerned in the tranſactions of the weſtern ſtates of chriſtendom. Even the ſtates of Barbary were drawn more than ever into the vortex of European politics. Malta, Egypt, Syria, and the ſhores of Aſia Minor, were virtually tranſported into Europe. The attention of this quarter of the world was divided, for a time, between the German ocean, with the Baltic ſea on the one hand, and the bottom of the Mediterranean and the Arabian gulph on the other: and the great object, which, next to the northern confederacy, attracted the public mind, was the expedition under ſir Ralph Abercromby to Egypt. Of

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Of the departure of Buonaparte from Egypt, the succession of Kleber in the command of the French army there, the convention of El-Arish, the non-fulfilment of that treaty, a consequent engagement, in which the Turks were defeated, and the death of Kleber, by assassination, we have taken a bird's-eye prospect in our last volume. The narrative of events, from the departure of Buonaparte we now resume, on a scale more particular.

The difficulties that environed the new commander-in-chief were of the most complicated and trying nature. The soldiers were discontented, the generals were divided, the whole army was in a state of the greatest perplexity. The privations of the army do not appear to have been great: but their sufferings from the climate, and frequent alerts from the Mamalukes and Arabs, were very considerable. A longing desire too of returning to France, a passion incident to the French, was very generally prevalent. As to the officers, there was a party who considered the colonization and retention of Egypt, after the communication was cut off with France, by the naval victory of Aboukir, as a hopeless and extravagant project. They were divided into colonists and anti-colonists.

In this arduous situation, general Kleber was bound by the instructions of his predecessors, to pursue, in many respects, a policy, than which nothing could be more humiliating to a generous officer. Stifling, however, his particular feelings, he soothed and animated the troops, and assiduously endeavoured to pursue the path that had been marked out to him, though frequently opposed both to his judgement and reflection.

The negotiation had been attempted with the Porte, through the medium of the Effendi, by Buonaparte; and many circumstances conspired to render the prosecution of it, on the part of Kleber, advisable. The vizir was advancing from Damascus, at the head of a numerous army; England was already active, and Russia in motion against the French: the greater portion of whom, had long been disgusted with the climate, and were now farther dispirited by the abandonment of their general, and the accounts they had begun to receive of the misfortunes of the republic.

Under these circumstances, and ignorant of the success of Buonaparte, Kleber was induced to accede to a treaty for the evacuation of Egypt, which was concluded at El-Arish, January 24, 1800. Whatever praise may be due to the exertions of sir Sydney Smith, and much is certainly due, the consequences resulting from the measure furnish sufficient cause for regret, that any consideration should have induced him to exceed the powers intrusted to him by government. One radical defect is also observable in the treaty of El-Arish, and is rendered remarkable by the skill otherwise displayed by sir Sydney Smith, throughout the negotiation. There was no hold on the French; nothing by which they could be compelled to observe and fulfil their engagements. It is, indeed, probable, that this circumstance was not unobserved by Kleber, who acted with the deepest policy, and who, waiting events, was anxious to keep himself in a situation either to break

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break or confirm the conditions of the convention. Even before the arrival of those instructions from the English government, which annulled the treaty of El-Arish, the French commander was endeavouring to find an occasion of quarrel with the Turks, in complaining, that the supplies they had engaged to furnish for the subsistence of the French troops did not arrive; and declaring, at the same time, that he would assert his right by force of arms: though the article by which the French were to give in a statement of their wants, had not yet been delivered to the Turks. Such was the language held by Kleber, on the 25th of February, while the terms on which only the French were to be permitted to evacuate Egypt, were not communicated to him till the 16th of March! Merely to gain time for the concentration of his forces before Cairo, Kleber now proposed a conference to the Ottoman ministers, under the pretext of effecting an amicable arrangement till some explanation should take place between the French and British governments. Having obtained his object, by a temporary suspension of hostilities, he gave in such demands as he knew must inevitably lead to the immediate renewal of the war. His ultimatum was of course rejected. On the 19th of March he convened a council of war, the result of whose deliberations, accompanied by a letter from lord Keith, announcing the refusal of the British ministry to sanction any such convention as that of El-Arish,* was communicated to the army in the following address: —"Soldiers! To such insults, we shall reply by victories: prepare for battle"† Informed, at length, of the "successful destinies" of Buonaparte, Kleber was anxious to efface the unfavourable impression that his first dispatches were calculated to inspire against the consul, by struggling for the preservation of the French interests in Egypt.

After a tedious march, begun in November, 1799, the grand vizir (Joseph Bashaw) encamped near Catich on the 5th of February, 1800, at about seven miles and a half, or three hours, distance from El-Arish, which fort had capitulated to the Turks, preparatory to the late negotiation. His army amounted numerically to 80,000; though he

* Lord Keith's letter to general Kleber, dated on board the Queen Charlotte, January 8, 1800, was, as follows: "Sir, I inform you, that I have received positive orders from his majesty, not to consent to any capitulation with the French troops which you command in Egypt and Syria, at least, unless they lay down their arms, surrender themselves prisoners of war, and deliver up all the ships and stores of the port of Alexandria to the allied powers. In the event of this capitulation, I cannot permit any of the troops to depart for France before they have been exchanged. All vessels having French troops on board, and sailing from this, with passports from others than those authorized to grant them, will be forced by the officers of the ships which I command to remain at Alexandria. In short, ships which shall be met returning to Europe, with passports granted in consequence of a particular capitulation with one of the allied powers, will be retained as prizes: and all individuals on board, considered as prisoners of war."

† Highly as the laconicism of Buonaparte has been admired, we do not think that so fine a specimen of the style, as is presented in this address of Kleber's, could be selected from the dispatches of the consul.

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could boaſt no more than 40,000 effective followers, and theſe characteriſed by the uſual features of a Turkiſh army—inconſtancy and inſubordination.* While the army was at El-Ariſh, the ſcarcity became ſo preſſing, that, had not a day's calm weather permitted a convoy to land ſome proviſions, a revolt might have have enſued. During theſe tranſactions, and even while Kleber was amuſing the allies with the farce of negotiation, the troops that had marched to embark for Alexandria were remanded, with all the heavy artillery, and Cairo was put into a ſtate of defence.

Hoſtilities recommenced early on the morning of March 20, by a fire from ſixty pieces of cannon, on the Turkiſh avanced poſts, commanded by Nuzuff-Baſhaw, at Mataria, the ancient Heliopolis, five miles from Cairo. The French army conſiſted of 15,000 men, including cavalry and dromedaries, and were drawn up in two ſtrong lines, extending from El-Kubbi towards Boulac, flanked on the right by a wood of date-trees, and part of their artillery. Here they received the attack of the Turks, who had advanced into the plain between the villages of El-Hanka and Mataria. The Janiſſaries were the only infantry that engaged in this ſkirmiſh, hovering about the French lines, in parties of twenty or thirty, and ſo ſcattered as to make no impreſſion. They were totally unſupported by cannon, and ſhort of ammunition. About noon, the French began to advance in line: Forty thouſand of the vizier's troops, not a man of whom had as yet engaged, were immediately ſeen flying in all directions. Attempts to rally them proved abortive; and at one o'clock the vizier was himſelf compelled to retire, as the enemy, marching in two oblique lines, were proceeding to cut off his retreat. He had permitted the French to approach within a mile of him, miſtaking them for his own troops; and it was not till captain Lacey, of the engineers, apprized him of his danger, that he could be perſuaded to riſe from his ſofa, and leave his pipe! The loſs of the French, conſiſted of ten killed and forty wounded: they took from the Turks about nineteen pieces of cannon. A briſk fire was kept up on the rear of the Turkiſh army, the whole of the night of the 20th, by the flying artillery of the French, who, on the 21ſt, took poſſeſſion of Belbeis; from whence the Turks retreated precipitately to Jaffa, with the loſs of half their army, by deſertion, fatigue, and hunger.

The French were prevented from purſuing their advantages to El-Ariſh, where they might either have deſtroyed that poſt, or gained ſome other advantage, which might have held the Turks in check, on the ſide of Syria, by one of thoſe circumſtances which peculiarly mark the character of the war in Egypt. A detachment of Janiſſaries and Mamalukes, under Nuzuff-Baſhaw, availing themſelves of

* Mr. Morier, who was an eye-witneſs of theſe ſcenes, gives us the following curious characteriſtic of the vizier's march, which is worthy of notice. The orders of the vizier (ſays Mr. Morier) were thus iſſued, by a crier, on the evening of February 20. "To-morrow you are to march for ten hours, to reach the waters of the Nile. Thoſe who wiſh it, may now depart."

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the absence of the French from Cairo, during the pursuit of the vizier, took possession of the town, or, as may be called, the suburbs of Boulac, situated on the Nile, in the near vicinity of Cairo, and a little farther down the river. About two or three hours after the commencement of the battle of Heliopolis, the inhabitants of that place, under the direction of a few Turkish officers, raised a white standard, and armed with muskets and sabres, which they had found means to conceal, attacked a fort, called Fort-Camin, near Boulac, garrisoned by a handful of French. Being obliged, by the guns of the fort, and a sortie from head-quarters, to fall back, after the loss of more than 200 men, they confined their hostilities to the firing on parties of French as they advanced, with an intent to enter, and reinforce the small corps of their countrymen stationed in that place. Numbers of Mamalukes and Janissaries came up for the support of the insurgents. The inhabitants of Cairo came out in crowds, in expectation of seeing a general engagement. Nuzuff-Bashaw, accompanied by Osman-Effendi, Kiaja-Bey, Ibrahim-Bey, Mahomed-Bey, Allan-Bey-Gedaoui, and, in a word, by all the chiefs of the old government, except Murad-Bey, with a numerous force, in the mean time, entered Cairo, March 29, by the gate of *Victory*, giving out that the French had been cut in pieces, and that they had come to take possession of the capital, in the name of Sultan-Selim. They celebrated, with great pomp, the triumph of the Ottoman arms over the infidels. The whole of their troops amounted to about 10,000 Turkish cavalry, 2000 Mamalukes, and from 8 to 10,000 inhabitants of villages. The march of this numerous body to Cairo had been concealed from the observation of the French, by fetching long circuits. They were received by the inhabitants of Cairo with demonstrations of the utmost joy.

Nuzuff-Bashaw with his troops, together with an immense cavalcade of the inhabitants of Cairo, went straight to the quarter of the town occupied by the French and other Europeans. A general pillage and massacre, without distinction of age or sex ensued, and the bodies of the slain were thrown into the canal called Kalidje. Nuzuff-Bashaw, with a part of his troops, proceeded to the place of Esbekieh, the French head-quarters. The grenadiers and foot-guards advanced to receive them. Being repulsed from head-quarters, which was a palace belonging to Mahomet-Bey-el-Elfi, their leaders, with as many of their followers as could, threw themselves into the adjoining houses.

An insurrection in Cairo was now general. Fifty thousand men, armed with muskets, pikes, and clubs, scoured the streets, and threatened to set fire to such houses as refused admittance. The white flag was every where displayed; and the criers from the tops of the mosques proclaimed curses on the heads of the infidels. Amidst hideous yells of war, the exclamation of joy, called *hoolalaus*, was every where heard among groupes of women and children. Mustapha-Aga, superintendant of the police, under the French government, being seized and delivered up by the multitude to the Turkish chiefs, was cruelly put to death by empalement. The populace deeming the dreadful punishment of Mustapha, which they greatly applauded, a pledge of impunity,

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punity, abandoned themſelves to every exceſs, and principally to pillage. The houſes of the Cophts, Greeks, and Chriſtians of Syria, were forced and plundered, and great numbers of thoſe unfortunate people were mercileſsly and wantonly put to death. The individuals, or ſmall parties of the French, ſcattered in different parts, endeavoured, with various ſucceſs, to make their way to the citadel.

Amidſt the general uproar and horror, occaſion was taken, by ſome, to gratify private malice and revenge by aſſaſſination. The rage of the Muſſulmen againſt the Chriſtians was inſuriated by a religion, falſe, indeed, in many reſpects, but not rightly underſtood, and accommodated to the animal ferocity of the vulgar. The law of Mahomet does not, by any means, preſcribe vindictive cruelty even towards the opponents of the faith; but to all men of all religions, goodneſs, and mercy. Among the immenſe numbers of Muſſulmen, which, at this tremendous criſis, crowded the ſtreets of Cairo, were ſome of the better ſort or condition, who ſo interpreted it. Mahomedans, both Turks and Arabs, at the hazard of their lives, uſed their utmoſt efforts, both of perſuaſion and force, to reſcue the Chriſtians from the murderous fury of their countrymen.

It was the principal object of Nuzuff-Baſhaw to carry, by ſtorm, the French head-quarters. Two hundred and fifty French ſuſtained the ſiege for two days, when they were reinforced by general Lagrange's column, that had returned for their ſupport from El-Hanka. The approach of this column was oppoſed by a body of 4000 cavalry, Turks and Mamalukes. General Lagrange drew up his men in a ſquare, formed by four battalions, to receive them. A diſcharge of muſketry, and of ſome pieces of cannon, ſoon diſperſed the aſſailants; and the French, under Lagrange, arrived in head-quarters about two in the afternoon. That poſt, by the ſkill and exertions of the artillery and engineers, was quickly rendered impregnable. The bombardment of Cairo, which had commenced on the firſt movements of inſurrection, from the citadel and the fort, called by the French *Dupuy*, was ſtill kept up without intermiſſion.

In the mean time, the French were obliged to abandon, one after another, the houſes adjoining, or near the place of Ebekieh. The inſurgents advanced, alſo, on their left, from the quarter of the Cophts, chooſing, with much judgement, the poſitions that were the moſt proper for intercepting the communications of the French, and maintaining their own with the other parts of Cairo, and with Boulac. The arrival of general Friant, with five battalions, drove back the aſſailants at all points; but, even by his ſucceſs, he learnt the difficulties through which he muſt penetrate into the interior of the city. In all the ſtreets he met with barricades, and here and there walls twelve feet high, conſtructed of muds and bricks, with double rows of embraſures. The apartments and the roofs of the adjoining houſes were filled with Janiſſaries. Every artifice was employed, in order to keep up, among the populace, the belief that the French army had been defeated by the vizier. Such as ſhewed any diſbelief or doubt on this head were either put inſtantly to death,

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death, or thrown into prison. Different envoys, sent from the French head-quarters, were massacred before they could reach the proper place, and persons for delivering their message. The insurgents every where, and, in all respects, displayed a degree of activity, which, under such a climate, is to be excited only by the enthusiasm of religion. They disinterred more than twenty pieces of cannon, hidden, for some time, underground. They established manufactures of powder, and forged bullets with the iron belonging to the mosques, as well as hammers and other tools, for artisans, who offered their services with the utmost alacrity. Magazines of provisions were also established for the use of those employed in the public service. The bombs and bullets of the French were picked up by the populace, in order to be returned, in the same manner as they had been sent; and, as they did not suit the calibre of their pieces, they absolutely founded new cannon and mortars. General Friant, at last, by setting fire to the range of houses that form the place of Esbekieh, arrested the progress of the insurgents in that quarter.

Such was the situation of Cairo, when general Kleber returned to it, with the remainder of the troops, from the pursuit of the grand vizier, on the 26th of March, 1800, at six o'clock in the morning. Being in want of both a sufficient quantity of ammunition, particularly bombs and howitzers, and of troops, and unwilling to run the hazard of a partial attack, he determined to wait for the return of the division, under general Belliard, who was to return to Cairo from Damietta, and the arrival of that under general Regnier. In the mean time, he threw up new entrenchments, and constructed new batteries. During this delay, which was necessary for the success of military operations, the general also employed himself in sowing the seeds of jealousy and discord, by means of emissaries in his pay, among the different classes and tribes that were opposed to him in arms, and in spreading the dispiriting intelligence of the total defeat and flight of the Turkish army. Letters, announcing this, by his contrivance, reached the Sheiks, and others of the first people of Cairo. Mustapha-Bashaw, a person of great influence among his countrymen, had been gained over to the side of the French, by the kind treatment he received when taken, on the descent of the Turks at Aboukir in 1799. Through this man general Kleber corresponded with Osman-Effendi and Nuzuff-Bashaw. As the hope that the French were at last overwhelmed, had united the different parties in Cairo, so, under the terror of their restored and confirmed power, they were soon divided. The Mamalukes, the people of Cairo, and the Turkish soldiers, having each separate interests, were soon disunited by the apprehension of danger, and the hopes held out exclusively to each, by the intrigues of Kleber: Nuzuff-Bashaw, Osman-Kiaja, and Ibrahim-Bey, judged it prudent to capitulate; and Kleber not to insist on too hard terms.

But this capitulation, though nowise harsh, was not carried into execution. The promoters and ringleaders of the insurrection, with the suspicion of barbarians, dreaded that, notwithstanding the pledged faith of the French, the restoration of their power would be immediately

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followed with that vengeance, which usually diſgraces the victories of eaſtern conquerors. This excited, among the populace, freſh commotions. They diſtributed among them both proviſions and money. Public prayers were put up in all the moſques. The women and the children crowding round the Mamalukes and Janiſſaries, and hanging by their clothes, conjured them not to abandon them to deſpair, and poured contempt and execration on thoſe who ſhould have the meanneſs to deſert them. When the time arrived for the execution of the convention, the Janiſſaries refuſed to open the gates of their reſpective quarters; and hoſtilities were renewed at all the poſts, though not on the ſcale that was intended, after the reunion of the forces.

In theſe circumſtances, general Kleber thought it good policy to divulge and circulate the connections formed between the French, and that old maſter of Egypt, Murad-Bey, who immediately after the convention of El-Ariſh, had ſought and obtained their friendſhip: when, notwithſtanding that convention, every thing announced a freſh rupture. The grand vizier ſummoned Murad-Bey to come, with his followers, in his camp. This circumſtance the bey communicated to general Kleber, adding, that he would not comply with the vizier's requeſt, without Kleber's conſent. The general replied, "that under the tents of the vizier he ſaw none, any more than in his own, but friends; and that he was at liberty to go to the vizier's camp with all his men."—General Morand, who was the bearer of this meſſage, was received with every demonſtration of kindneſs.—Two days before the battle of Heliopolis, or, as it is otherwiſe called, the battle of Mattaria, general Kleber, wiſhing to know for certain, what he had to expect from Murad-Bey, opened a negotiation with him, through one of his wives, who was, when he married her, the widow of Ali-Bey. This was a lady of the moſt amiable character. Her houſe, for thirty years, was the only aſylum in Egypt for the unfortunate and diſtreſſed of all nations. Orders had been given, both by Buonaparte and Kleber, that ſhe ſhould be treated with every mark of the moſt diſtinguiſhed eſteem and honour. The anſwer of Murad-Bey was to this effect: "That the French ſhould give battle to the vizier, and that, then, during the action, he would come over to his camp: but that he would engage for nothing, while a rupture between the Turks and French ſhould be ſtill uncertain." General Kleber readily accepted his terms, and agreed that he ſhould not take any part in any engagement that might take place, if he ſhould be obliged to come to action with the vizier. On this, he retired, before the battle of Heliopolis, and ſat down on the right bank of the Nile, at Toura. A ſolemn treaty was made and ratified between general Kleber and the bey, whereby Murad became a kind of vaſſal, or tributary to the French, on the condition that there ſhould be allotted to him a certain territory in the Upper Egypt, and that he ſhould be furniſhed by them with the means that might be neceſſary for taking poſſeſſion of it. The provinces of Gingé and Aſſuan were allotted to him. His title was to be, "Prince governor for the French republic." After the deeds were duly

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daily exchanged, Murad-Bey sent supplies of provisions to the French head-quarters; and some boats laden with the reed, called the *sweet calamus*. He used all his influence in Cairo, but not with immediate success to bring about a definitive treaty of peace between the French and the grand signior.

The insurrection of Cairo was followed, as usual in similar cases, by risings in different parts of the country: at Damietta, Meballet-el-Kebir, Tanta, and other places. But French troops traversing the Delta in every direction, and a series of victories, in petty engagements, restored general tranquillity to the lower Egypt: where there were now no other disorders than those arising from the incursions of Arabs, plunderers by profession. These events took place between the 29th of March and the 4th of April.

On the night of April 2, a detachment of the division under general Friant attacked the quarters of the Cophts, situated on the north side of the city, penetrated into it by a long street, that runs parallel to an old wall inclosing the quarter, on that side, drove the enemy from their houses, and the numerous barricades which defended that passage, and obtained possession of certain posts which opened a more direct communication than had formerly subsisted, between the one extremity of the French line and the other. In repeated attempts to recover these positions, the Mussulmen lost a great number of men, and four standards.

April 10. General Regnier, who had arrived at Cairo, with part of the division under his command, and occupied the space between the citadel and Fort Carmin, with two companies of grenadiers, and two of light-horsemen gained, in the dead of the night, a very commanding position, near the fort *Fuskoyi*. The houses, in the vicinity, with the exception of such as were necessary for the maintenance of the post, were committed to the flames. Twice the enemy attempted, to recover that post, and were twice repulsed. They renewed the charge next day; but were beat back with very great loss.

While this was passing on the right of the French line, equal exertions were made on the left. The object was to form a combined attack. Both extremities therefore were to meet, as they proceeded to penetrate into the heart of the city. On the same night, between the 10th and 11th of April, another party attacked the quarters of the Mussulmen's engineers, situated on the right of the plane of Esbekieh, entered it by a breach made by the shot of cannon, and drove the enemy before them with the greatest impetuosity.

The continual fire kept up by the forts and citadel, in order to second these successive and rapid attacks, exhausted the French ammunition. This did not escape the notice of the enemy: who, animated by this circumstance, as well as by the assurances which they had received of speedy succour from the vizier, endeavoured, by public rejoicings, to revive the drooping spirits of the inhabitants of Cairo; whose ignorance and fanaticism presented continually fresh means and opportunities of tampering with their blind credulity. The minarets were illuminated. The *muezzins*, or public criers, whose office it was to call the people, at fixed hours, to prayers,

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celebrated, in lively songs, the low state into which they had been induced to believe that the French had fallen.

General Belliard, who had been recalled from the pursuit of the vizier, as above noticed, with a troop of light infantry, arrived at Cairo on the 12th, and, on the same day, a convoy of ammunition from Rozetta. Furnished with these means, general Kleber prepared for the reduction of Boulac, and a general attack on Cairo. In pursuance of this resolution, the village of Boulac was, on the 13th, summoned now, for the third time, to surrender. On the one hand, a general, complete, and unreserved, pardon was held out to the inhabitants, as the price of their submission: on the other, the most terrible vengeance was denounced, if, by a resistance as useless as pernicious to themselves, they should oblige the French to reduce the place by force of arms. Construing all this into a proof of weakness, they replied, that they would follow the fate of Cairo, where their chiefs were, and that, if they were attacked, they would defend themselves as long as they had life.

The reduction of Boulac, it was considered, would be an important step towards that of the capital, whose inhabitants were led to believe, that the French were unable to make themselves masters even of that inferior town; besides it would have a favourable influence on the Turkish chiefs, and give weight to the sheiks of Cairo, who now entreated and implored them to come to a capitulation.

April 14. At the break of day, the siege of Boulac was formed by general Friant, with one demi-brigade, or regiment of light-infantry, two companies of grenadiers, a detachment of miners, and the light artillery of the division, commanded by general Belliard. General Friant, unwilling to subject the town to the horrors of assault, if it could be reduced otherwise, tried, at first, the effect of a bombardment. But the insurgents, continuing their resistance, kept up a brisk fire from houses fortified by entrenchments, and from the embrasures of walls and barricades, which obstructed the advances into the town, and, in some places, intersected the principal streets. The cannon was now ordered to play. Orders were given for an assault. The soldiers sprung at once on the entrenchments; the greater part of which was taken, though the besieged defended themselves with heroic courage. Driven from their entrenchments, they found, in every house, a new citadel, which was to be subdued only by the destructive power of fire. The houses that could not be forced were committed to the flames. Amidst the cries of fury, horror, and despair, a new offer of pardon and protection was offered to the leaders of the insurgents; by whom, even in these circumstances, it was, a second time, rejected. The assault was recommenced, streams of blood flowed afresh, and the flames gained more and more on the populous town of Boulac, until the vanquished, at length, implored the mercy of the victors. The headmen of the different corporations, or classes of the townsmen, came up to general Friant, with tenders of submission, which were immediately accepted. Hostilities ceased; and a general and unlimited pardon was proclaimed from the minarets, and all the public places.

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The commander-in-chief, willing to improve the advantage he had gained, determined, next day, to follow up the reduction of Boulac with a general attack on Cairo. This design however, on account of rains as violent as unexpected, he was obliged to postpone till the 17th of April. It was necessary to burn the houses in which the enemy had fortified themselves, and where they had formed their batteries; which could not be done but in dry weather. The Turks, in great numbers, were strongly entrenched in the palace of *Soitia Fatmé*, which flanked the left of their line, at the place of Esbekieh. For some days the French had been employed in running a mine under that important post. The explosion of the mine was to be the signal for a general attack. This explosion was made, towards the close of day, with complete success. The Janissaries and Mamalukes, who defended the post, were buried under its ruins.

At that instant an assault was made on Cairo, at various points. The enemy were driven from one post to another. About four hundred houses were burned, and eight hundred Janissaries and Mamalukes were killed. Some of their chiefs were enabled to save themselves by abandoning their houses, or taking shelter in the houses situated on the great canal which is extended through the city. But this progress of the French cost them also dear. The retreating enemy made frequent stands, and the firing of individuals, as well as parties from the houses, was not without effect. Upwards of five hundred French fell by the firing from the houses, or the poignards and sabres of the Mamalukes and Janissaries. General Belliard, and some other officers of distinction, were among the wounded. The return of day light put a stop to the conflict. The positions abandoned by the enemy were occupied by the French.

The fanatical zeal and frantic courage of the Mussulmen sunk before the continued successes of the French. Among the whole of the inhabitants of Cairo, there was a very perceptible air of lassitude and of dejection. In this state of mind, they began to listen more than ever to the counsels of the sheiks, who, all along, kept up a secret correspondence with general Kleber, and who insisted still, that farther resistance would overwhelm the city with total ruin, without being of any advantage whatever to the grand vizier. The mediation too of Murad-Bey became more efficacious than it had been. Murad sent Osman-Bey-Birdisi, to Ibrahim-Bey, and Nuzuff-Bashaw, with his advice and entreaties, that they would capitulate, and an offer of his mediation. The terms which these chiefs then proposed were such, that he did not choose to lay them himself before general Kleber. He therefore, on the 17th, sent Osman-Bey-Birdisi, with Osman-Bey-Laskar, a relation of Ibrahim-Bey's, and Osman-Aga, a kinsman of the grand vizier's, to the general. They arrived at head-quarters in the evening, a little after the commencement of the attack. Next day, general Kleber gave them a public audience, in presence of all the generals and officers of his staff. The terms they proffered Kleber rejected with expressions of disdain: adding, that if, what they proposed were known to the whole army, it would excite such an indignation as must for ever

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preclude all means of conciliation. He then, to put an end to farther conference, conducted the three messengers into an apartment, commanding a prospect of both Cairo and Boulac, the latter place still emitting flames; and columns of smoke: thereby giving them to understand, without the aid of an interpreter, that such would be the fate of Cairo, if it should not be warded off by submission to the French army: at the same time he shewed to Ibrahim-Bey the treaty of peace and alliance which he had concluded with Murad-Bey. This produced all the effect that he had anticipated. It was evident, from the astonishment and consternation of the Bey, that the same cause would produce similar effects, and have a pacificatory influence on the Turks.

The envoys returned immediately to Cairo, and returned the next day, April 19, with conditions of peace, more advantageous to the assailants than those of the preceding day. General Kleber proposed certain modifications. They proposed a cessation of arms, which Kleber refused to grant. They requested, that any attack that should be made might be less violent than that of the 17th, assuring the general, that there was not a doubt of the evacuation of Cairo, by the Turkish troops being speedily accomplished, in a pacific manner.

General Kleber, after this second conference with the envoys of peace, introduced the Turkish officers that had been made prisoners by general Belliard, at Damietta, in order to convince them, that the French were not only masters of that place, but of Lesbek and all the Lower Egypt: an important circumstance of which they appeared to have been hitherto entirely ignorant. On the same day, he sent them, with the conditions he was willing to grant, for the evacuation of Cairo, reduced to writing, and addressed to the chiefs of the Turkish army. This overture for conciliation general Kleber thought it proper to follow up, on the evening, with attacks on several Turkish posts; which were carried without much resistance. The capitulations, as modified by general Kleber, were signed, in the name of the Turks, by Nuzuff-Bashaw, and brought to the French head-quarters. Hostages being given on both sides, the Turkish army evacuated Cairo, April 24. The loss of the Mamalukes, during the insurrection of Cairo, was computed at 500 killed, and 1000 wounded. That of the Turks 1200 killed, and 1000 wounded. The besieged marched out with all the honours of war, leaving their wounded in the hospitals, to be returned when cured. The Turks carried along with them the leaders of the insurrection: who, notwithstanding that the French general's word of honour was pledged in the most solemn manner for their protection, were dreadfully afraid of his vengeance. The whole of the enemy, Turks and Mamalukes, as well as the refugees, were under the utmost apprehensions, on quitting Cairo, of being pursued and attacked on their march. Their fears were soon dispersed, by the subordination and good order which prevailed in the French army; at which Nuzuff-Bashaw, and Ibrahim-Bey, expressed their surprize, at the same time that they returned their thankfulack nowledgements.—The revenge of the French was expressed in heavy contribu-

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tions.—The retiring army was escorted by the French division under Reynier, as far as Salahieh; from whence they pursued their route through the desert to Gaza.

About this time, general Kleber was informed by his ally, Murad-Bey, that a body of 4 or 500 English, and 4 mortars, under colonel Murray, had landed, and made himself master of Suez. The English garrison was strengthened by 6 or 800 men from Mecca and Jambo. The colonel, having learnt the successes of the French, and that a superior force had advanced within a few leagues, re-embarked the greater part of his troops; leaving the defence of the place, as stated by the French, to the troops, if they may be called so, just mentioned, and 50 English. It is needless to mention that Suez was re-taken by the French, with little or no resistance.

Murad-Bey, before his departure for Upper Egypt, had an interview with general Kleber, in which assurances were exchanged of mutual fidelity.——Mustapha-Bashaw was disgraced for his conduct at Cairo, by being sent into exile. The plate of the Greek and Roman catholics, at Cairo, was found in his possession, and sold, by public auction, at Jaffa. The French had considered the city of Cairo as too extensive and populous to be defended; but, to prevent a recurrence of the dilemma, from which they had just extricated themselves, orders were given to repair a wall that anciently surrounded the town, to construct a few towers, and to occupy certain posts, to which Kleber successfully appointed his auxiliary Greeks and Cophts.

CHAP.

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CHAP. XIII.

Effect of the Victory at Heliopolis on the Minds of the Egyptians.—Judicious Regulations, carried into Effect, by General Kleber.—Turkish Fleet off Alexandria.—Differences between the Generals Kleber and Menou.—Kleber assassinated.—Succeeded in the Command of the Army by General Menou.—Dissentions in the French Army.—Conjectures concerning the personal Views of Menou.—Military Preparations of the Turks.—Their Timidity and Irresolution.—Overtures for Peace, from the Grand Vizier, rejected by General Menou.—Arrival of an English Armament on the Coast of Egypt.—Landing of the Troops on the Peninsula of Aboukir.—Engagement on the 13th of March.—Fort Aboukir capitulates.—Battle of the 21st.—Sir R. Abercromby mortally wounded, and succeeded in the Command of the Army by Major-General Hutchinson.—The French driven from Rhamanieh to Cairo—From whence a Detachment marches, against the Turkish Army near Belbeis.—But are repulsed.—Capture of a valuable French Convoy.—Capitulation of Cairo.—A British Army arrives in Egypt from India.—Capitulation of Alexandria.—Evacuation of Egypt by the French and the English.—The Beys seized and sent to Constantinople.—Government by Bashaws established in Egypt.

CIRCUMSTANCES unforeseen, and probably unexpected, had now entirely altered the situation of the army of the east. It is in the effects of the last defeat of the Ottoman power, effects apparently so disproportionate to their cause, that we must look for a change so auspicious to the French. As to the victory of Heliopolis, abstractedly considered, if victory it may be termed, no one appears to have entertained a juster idea of it than Kleber himself, who said, on the evening preceding the engagement, that he had only to go out, and wave his hand towards the Turks, in order to incite them to retire!

It is the nature of weak minds to be unreasonably elated, and as unreasonably depressed; to augur more than the circumstances warrant, and to sink, on the disappointment of their hopes, into consternation and despair. Seeing, therefore, the defeat of the vizier's forces, at the time when they were most confident of his success, the Egyptians concluded the struggle to be over, and hastened to make submission to their conquerors: and, notwithstanding the heavy fines exacted from Cairo, in punishment of what was called the disaffection of its inhabitants, the country remained tranquil and passive. To these local and immediate advantages, were

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were added the knowledge of Buonaparte's triumph at Paris, and the conſequent improvement in the affairs of the republic in Europe. Even thoſe who lately arraigned the defection of their favourite commander, in natural and bitter reproaches, ſeemed to be convinced of the propriety of his departure, and to forget their own ſufferings, in the benefits likely to be derived from it by their country. They were, moreover, aſſured, that, connected as they were with the principal perſonage of their preſent government, every thing would be attempted for their aſſiſtance. They relied with confidence on the aſſertion of Buonaparte—"that he ſhould look upon that day of his life as ill employed, in which he ſhould not do ſomething for the army he had left under Kleber, an army entirely compoſed of his OWN CHILDREN!" Kleber availed himſelf of theſe propitious moments, to carry many judicious regulations into effect. Two companies of Greeks, raiſed by his predeceſſor, having ſignalized themſelves by their conduct and courage, Kleber raiſed a Greek legion, which ſoon amounted to 1500 men: to ſecure the means of carriage, in caſes of exigency, he eſtabliſhed a park of 500 camels, and gave orders for the purchaſe of horſes and camels: he threw flying bridges over the branches of the Nile; and eſtabliſhed poſts of communication between the different ſtations of the army: he formed a committee of works: he improved the condition of the ſoldiery, and ſuppreſſed the peculations of commiſſaries.

Towards the latter end of May, the captain-baſhaw appeared off Alexandria, with the Turkiſh fleet, in order to open a negotiation with the French. As this officer was entirely in the confidence of the ſultan, and by no means friendly to the vizier, he probably hoped to render himſelf ſtill more important by retrieving, through a peace, the diſgrace and defeat of Heliopolis. But, whatever were the views of the baſhaw, Kleber, emboldened by the ſucceſſes of the French arms, and acting upon the views of the chief conſul, prohibited the landing of any agent of the Turks, and refuſed theſe advances to an accommodation. By declining all communication with the Turkiſh and Engliſh commanders, Kleber expected to open a direct correſpondence with Conſtantinople, which might enable him to keep up a regular intercourſe with his own government, and prevail on the Turks to conſent to a neutrality till the concluſion of a general peace. This policy was, however, fruſtrated by the activity of lord Elgin, and by the vigour which that activity infuſed into the councils and determinations of the Porte.

But the wiſdom of Kleber's adminiſtration could not prevent the jealouſies and bickerings that too frequently impede the operation of public affairs. Differences had unhappily ariſen, between this general and Menou: the latter did not make his appearance at Cairo, although requeſted repeatedly to repair thither during the ſix preceding months, till the expulſion of the Turks from that city. When at laſt arrived, he raiſed ſo many objections to his taking the command of the place, and indeed to every other employment, that Kleber obſerved, that, "having

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"having offered him the moſt deſirable commands, he had only that of commander-in-chief to add."

From this time, the diſſentions of the French army were daily augmented; and various reports, injurious to Kleber, and calculated to deprive him of the confidence of the army, were conſtantly in circulation.

He was aſſaſſinated on the 13th of June, 1800, after reviewing the Greek legion in the iſle of Raoudah, while walking on the terrace of his garden at Cairo, in converſation with citizen Protain, his architect. The aſſaſſin, following him from Gizeh, had arrived at Cairo about the middle of May, and introduced himſelf into the houſe along with the workmen. Seizing the moment when Kleber's attention was deeply engroſſed, he gave him ſeveral ſtabs with a poignard. On the news of the aſſaſſination, the generals immediately aſſembled at the houſe of general Damas. The aſſaſſin was ſoon after arreſted, and interrogated. The ſheiks and agas were likewiſe examined; but there appearing no reaſon to believe that the deed was connected with any more extenſive conſpiracy, the remains of Kleber were interred, and the aſſaſſin was executed. His right hand was cut off; and he was then empaled!

Thus fell, in the vigour of his days, one of the ableſt generals of the French army. No man was more beloved by his troops, none more eſteemed by his country, or more reſpected by his foes. He poſſeſſed that loftineſs of ſoul, without which no true heroiſm can exiſt, together with that diſcrimination of mind, by which alone courage is preſerved from raſhneſs and inconſiſtency. He had great civil, as well as military, talents; which were uniformly exerted with a view to the welfare of the republic, unbiaſſed by party, and undiverted by fortune. A nobler teſtimony could not have been paid to his worth, than in the circumſtances attending the removal of his remains from Egypt. "The army," ſays general Reynier, "could not endure to leave in Egypt the remains of Kleber. The ceremony of conveying theſe remains from fort Ibrahim-Bey, where they had been depoſited, was announced by ſalutes from all the forts. The Engliſh and Turks, who had been previouſly informed of the intended honour, that the firing of the artillery might in the circumſtance of the armies create no jealouſies, joined in the funeral honours, and anſwered by their cannon the ſalutes of the French." It is with regret, that we find his ſucceſſor in command attempting to tarniſh the reputation of Kleber, and to refuſe that juſtice to his memory, which hardly ignorance and vanity could withhold. Such attempts muſt invariably recoil, with doubled indignity, on their authors. Far different are the natural indications of a great ſoul! Julius Cæſar wept over the head of the deceaſed Pompey!

On the 14th of June, the day after the aſſaſſination of Kleber, general Menou aſſumed the title of commander-in-chief, *ad interim*: after the interment of Kleber, and the execution of the aſſaſſin, he added that of general-in-chief.—Though this was done in conformity with the wiſhes of the other generals, and Menou at firſt appeared willing to conciliate all parties, mur-

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mark of diſſatisfaction were ſoon heard in every department of the ſervice. The generals were diſguſted, by the intrigues of the new commander to obtain the confirmation of his authority; the ſoldiers were diſpleaſed with a chief, in whom they repoſed no military confidence; and the agents of the civil adminiſtration found themſelves quickly entangled in the execution of plans, which, however popular, betrayed only the folly in which they were conceived, and the utter impoſſibility of their being carried into effect.

Miniſtry having confirmed the treaty of El-Ariſh, though unofficially concluded,* as ſoon as they were appriſed of the tranſaction, Mr. Wright, lieutenant of the Tigre, on the 9th of June, arrived at Cairo, by the Deſert, with a flag of truce, bearing diſpatches from the vizier and ſir Sidney Smith. Menou knowing the importance attached to Egypt by Buonaparte, refuſed to liſten to a renewal of the negotiation; though he was the more earneſt to open another with the captain baſhaw, who was then concerting meaſures at Jaffa, with the vizier and ſir Sidney Smith, againſt the common enemy. The repreſentations of ſir Sidney Smith, backed by the recollection of the rebuff that he had recently experienced at the hands of Kleber, when deſirous of treating with that general, effectually counteracted the policy of Menou towards this baſhaw. Egypt was now, to all appearance, tranquil; and, ſoon after this, the periodical inundation covered the country.

Diſſention ſtill raged in the French army. The injudiciouſneſs of the new impoſts excited univerſal reprobation in the country; a military force was abſolutely requiſite to collect them. and, when collected, their produce by no means equalled the public expenditure, which, ſince the death of Kleber, had augmented from 13 or 1400,000 to 17 or 1800,000 francs per month. Stores and magazines were neglected; and the whole ſyſtem was apparently conducted, on the ſuppoſition that Egypt was in no danger of being attacked. Under theſe circumſtances, a remonſtrance was preſented to Menou, from the other generals, on the 28th of October. To this, he replied, by offering to ſeveral of the remonſtrants their paſſports for France. As little did he pay any attention to the labours of the Savants, who had been ſpared by Buonaparte. Menou embodied them with the other camp followers, and they might thus be called on, if circumſtances ſhould require, to perform military, or any other ſervice.† He was, however, confirmed in the command, by the arrival

* The exiſtence of the treaty could not be known to the Britiſh government, when lord Keith's inſtructions were iſſued; and into which miniſtry were probably deceived by the *intercepted letters from Egypt*, where the diſtreſſes of the French, and their inability to keep long in Egypt, were, however preſſing, greatly exaggerated. *The ratifications of the treaty of El-Ariſh were exchanged, January* 28, 1800: *the orders to lord Keith were iſſued in December*, 1799. We have ſhewn that Kleber never intended to abide by that treaty, *if circumſtances ſhould ariſe inducing him to break it*; conſequently the charge of bad faith, with reſpect to this treaty, muſt be transferred wholly to the French. It ſerved their purpoſe in Egypt, but, in Europe, as applied to Britain, it will be heard with contempt.

† This was one of the boldeſt deſigns ever attempted by any tactician. To reduce a very conſiderable number of philoſophers to the ſubordination of privates, we preſume, was

rival of dispatches from France, on the 5th of November. Damas, the intimate friend of Kleber, had already been superseded; and the confirmation of his command encouraged Menou at once to throw off the mask, and point out those whom he conceived to be inimical to his designs. What were the extent and scope of these, it is, perhaps, impossible to ascertain. His having declared himself a Mussulman, and his marriage with an Egyptian lady; his unceasing reprobation, nor without reason, in his dispatches to the government, of an anti-colonist faction;* his attempts at forming to himself a party susceptible of his own views and opinions, and the anxiety which he constantly displayed to disembarass himself from the interference of those who were not adapted to his wishes: these circumstances gave birth to a suspicion of his intending to erect Egypt into a colony, of which he might hope to become the sole and independent ruler. It is far from improbable, that Buonaparte had conceived such a design, though induced, by events, to relinquish this object of his ambition; but there is no reconciling the imbecility and inactivity of Menou, with so daring and extentive a project. He, who seems wholly to have neglected the measures necessary to the defence of Egypt, can scarcely be believed to have felt a wish for the mastery of that country. Perhaps, too great a confidence in himself, and too high a contempt for the judgement and information of others, were the real grounds of those disgraceful altercations, which continually agitated the administration of general Menou. It does not seem so difficult to explain the imprudent avidity of his financial exactions. Considering the retention of Egypt necessary only till the conclusion of a peace, and supposing that event to be speedily approaching, he might imagine himself justified in supplying the increased expenditure of the army, by large and extraordinary imposts: if Egypt was shortly to be restored to its former owners, this exhaustion of its resources, however painful to the country, would no longer distress the French.

Not discouraged at the reception of a former remonstrance on his conduct, with regard to both military and financial arrangements, but deeply affected by the aspect of their affairs, the French generals waited again on Menou, immediately after the arrival of the brevet, which confirmed him in the rank of general and commander-in-chief.—Perceiving the inefficacy of their representations, and persuaded, at the same time, that the general had obtained the confirmation of his command, by misrepresenting the situation of the army in his dispatches, they drew up a note, descriptive of his conduct, November 24, and delivered it to an officer,

was not an easy task. During the insurrection of Cairo, 1798, the Savants, who lived together in a spacious house and garden, fortified their precincts, as well as time and circumstances allowed, and armed themselves for their own defence, and chose their commander-in-chief and other officers. But that soon happened, which might have easily been foreseen. Every one had his own plan; all were eager to command, but none willing to obey. This anecdote we give on the authority of Denon.

* That is, men who were heartily sick of the fate of the army of the east, and who were sighing to return to France!

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about to depart for France, who was charged to present it to the government. The departure of this officer was retarded till the 9th of January, 1801; and he was, finally, taken by the English.*

The vizier, meanwhile, remained at Jaffa, with from 10 to 12000 men, where the fortifications had been repaired by English engineers, as well as the breach at El-Arish. He was, however, in no condition to march, though, with a view to inspirit and connect his forces, he continually asserted his intention of proceeding to offensive operations. His troops had not yet forgotten their retreat from Heliopolis: he was in open quarrel with the bashaw Ghezzar, who commanded a more numerous army: the greatest dearth afflicted Palestine; no supplies were to be procured from the inhabitants of the villages; and he was at length constrained to import from Europe, under numerous disadvantages, the subsistence for his army: a reinforcement of 10,000 men, assembled at Aleppo, was recalled to act against Pahwan Oglou, who, having raised himself into popularity by his opposition to the imposts of the government, was in formidable rebellion against the Porte: receiving little money from Constantinople, he attempted, in November, to raise the value of the coin, in order to provide for the payment of his troops, but this occasioned a revolt among them, which was with difficulty repressed: in the midst of these perplexities, he had intreated the aid of the English, part of whose forces appeared off Jaffa, towards the end of December; but, were prevented from landing by the plague, which then ravaged the army of the vizier.† They afterwards sailed for Rhodes, and the Gulf of Macri, to finish their preparations. About the middle of December, he received, from Constantinople, the plan of the campaign, and orders to act in concert with the English. The wisdom of this policy, however, in appearing to be particularly connected with the vizier, may reasonably be doubted; since, by this measure, they forfeited the friendship of the Mamalukes, a brave, powerful, and warlike race, who were thus induced to ally themselves more intimately with the French. General Koehler, with some officers of the line, and about 40 privates, were about this time engaged in disciplining the vizier's troops.

These movements were communicated to Menou, in the beginning of January, 1801, by the French spies employed in Syria, and were successively confirmed by the Greek vessels arriving at the port of Egypt. That commander, however, imagined that only the vizier would attempt Egypt; and that the coming of the English, which he yet questioned, could be on no other errand than that of obtaining their share in the partition of the Ottoman empire, by establishing themselves at Rhodes, and acquiring possession of the Archipelago. A detachment of troops quartered

* The famous Tallien. He was accompanied by a number of other French officers. They were brought to London, where they remained for a few days, and then, being liberated on their parole, returned to Paris.

† It is not safe to mingle with the Turks, till the end of June; it might, at this time, have cost us every man of those who appeared off Jaffa, had we persisted in joining the vizier.

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in Upper Egypt, received orders to march to Benezouff, and hold themſelves in readineſs to proceed to Cairo. But, while theſe diſpoſitions, were carrying into effect, two frigates arrived at Alexandria, February 2, with 300 conſcripts, a company of artillery and ammunition, and a number of comedians and common women, withal, bringing intelligence of the deſigns of the Engliſh, the plan of the French government for the defence of Egypt, and announcing the ſpeedy arrival of conſiderable ſuccours. Agreeably to this intelligence, Menou afterwards occupied Rahmanieh, that, by ſecuring the Delta, he might facilitate the landing of Gantheaume, with two frigates, and carrying a reinforcement of not leſs than 5000 men, which could not, on the arrival of the Engliſh fleet, be attempted at Alexandria.

Notwithſtanding the extenſive preparations of the Engliſh, in conſequence of the urgent ſolicitations of the Porte, and the total incapacity of that power to reſiſt, by itſelf, the energetic arms of the republic, the Turks were yet extremely unwilling to embark in vigorous hoſtilities. Several cauſes conſpired to produce this timidity of diſpoſition. Awed by the threats of the emperor Paul, who, at the inſtigation of Buonaparte, ſeemed determined to overrun the Ottoman empire, they were anxious to prevent that moſt dreaded of all calamities, the preſence of a Ruſſian army, by timely negotiation with Menou. Even the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh, ſo often requeſted, and ſo neceſſary to a ſucceſsful oppoſition of the army of the Eaſt, might prove not without its diſadvantages. It is certain, that the vizier, though hitherto the friend and advocate of the Engliſh, had now begun to contemplate our forces, with ſuſpicion; and that his dread of the proſpective ſuperiority of the Engliſh, nearly equalled the apprehenſion with which he regarded the ſucceſs of the French: in either caſe, Egypt might eventually be ſubjected to the yoke of the victorious invader. He had, beſides, to counteract the intrigues of the captain baſhaw, the uniform advocate of the French, whoſe aſcendency was predominant in the ſeraglio. Now this counter action could not be more effectually accompliſhed, than by bringing about ſuch a peace with Menou, as ſhould include the evacuation of Egypt. Murad-Bey, having been encouraged by Kleber to correſpond with Ibrahim-Bey, as a medium of aſcertaining the plans and diſpoſitions of the allies, afforded a channel of communication, which it might otherwiſe have been difficult, if not impoſſible, to have obtained, between the vizier and the French commander, without awaking the jealouſy and reſentment of the Engliſh. He, therefore, requeſted Murad, through Ibrahim-Bey, to offer himſelf as mediator between the Turks and French. As it was the policy of Murad, to conciliate all parties, while prudently depending on none, he accepted the inſtructions of the vizier, and undertook to convey them to Cairo. The miſſion was intruſted to Oſman-Bey-Bardiſi, who had audience of Menou on the 19th of February. He laid before that general a ſtatement of the Engliſh forces, together with the plan of the approaching campaign. The Engliſh army, he affirmed, amounted to 18,000 men; they were to

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to attempt a landing in conjunction with the captain Baſhaw, while the vizier croſſed the deſert, and the Engliſh fleet, with troops from India, ſhould arrive at Suez. Oſman enforced this ſtatement by reaſonings, and begged that Menou would not forget the intereſts of Murad-Bey, if he entered into treaty with the Porte. He was heard with great coldneſs, and anſwered with ſingular abruptneſs, by Menou; who ſeems to have conſidered Oſman rather as a ſpy, deputed to inveſtigate the condition of the French army, than as the ambaſſador of a mediatorial power. On the appearance of the Engliſh fleet, in the road of Aboukir, Oſman repeated Murad's offers to ſtrengthen the French army with all his reſources; but he received only evaſive anſwers, and was ſoon after ordered to quit Cairo, and return to Murad-Bey. Thus terminated the overture towards a negotiation, which, had it been ſkilfully managed, might have proved of the greateſt importance to the French.

The plague had appeared in Cairo, at the latter end of January, where it raged with its accuſtomed virulence; the finances were collected by force; the military cheſt was nearly exhauſted; and the magazines were unprovided with corn, of which there ſeems to have been a ſcarcity among the French ſince the death of Kleber. It was, therefore, with conſiderable pleaſure, that they ſaw two ſhips arrive in the port of Alexandria,* from France, on the 1ſt of March. La Regenerée brought 200 men of the 31ſt demi-brigade, a company of artillery, and ammunition: the brig, la Lodi, communicated the ſatisfactory intelligence of Gantheaume's ſquadron being on its way with the reinforcement above ſtated.

All minds were now anxiouſly directed towards Egypt. It was a novel and intereſting ſpectacle, to contemplate the two moſt powerful European nations contending, in Africa, for the poſſeſſion of Aſia. Not only to England and France, but the whole civilized world, the iſſue of this conteſt was of the utmoſt importance. With reſpect to England, the difficulties to be ſurmounted were proportioned to the magnitude of the object. The vizier, with his uſual irreſolution, yet debated on the propriety of co-operation; while the captain Baſhaw, who was at Conſtantinople with part of his fleet, inclined to treat with the enemy. The Engliſh taking the unpopular ſide, that of the government, ſtill leſs was to be hoped from the countenance and ſupport of the people, whom the French had long flattered with the idea of freedom and independence. It remained alſo to juſtify the breach of faith, ſo ſpeciouſly attributed to this nation, in the treaty of El-Ariſh. Theſe were ſerious obſtacles to the progreſs of the expedition to Egypt; but they were not the only obſtacles. This expedition had to contend with an army, habituated to the country, reſpected at leaſt, if not beloved, by the inhabitants, and flushed with reputation and ſucceſs; an army, inured to danger, aware of the importance of Egypt to their government, determined to defend the poſſeſſion of

* The Engliſh ſhips of war, blockading this port, had gone to join the fleet under lord Keith, in the bay of Aboukir.

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it; and encouraged in this determination, no less by the assurance of speedily receiving effectual succours, than by the promise of reward, and the love of glory.—The French force in Egypt, at this time, distributed in different posts, garrisons, and, we may add, hospitals, amounted to about 30,000. The number of their allies, consisting of Cophts, Greeks, Arabs, Mamalukes, and corps of camp-followers, or adventurers from France, was computed at 15,000. The English troops, which had long harassed, and kept up an alert on the coasts of France, Spain, and Italy, thus distracting the enemy, and concealing their grand object, the expulsion of the French from Egypt, were assembled, in November, at Malta. The command of the land forces, as already noticed, in the proceedings and debates of parliament, declined by general Stuart, was devolved on sir Ralph Abercromby.—The English fleet, ships of war of various kinds, boats, and transports, having set sail from Malta, December 10, had arrived at Marmorice, on the coast of Caramania, on the 28th of December, and had captured, on its passage, as above noticed, a vessel bound from Alexandria to Marseilles, from which some information was acquired respecting the French force at Alexandria. At Marmorice, the whole army, from 17 to 18,000, was alternately put on shore, marraded, and refreshed; and was joined by a convoy of Greeks and Turks, who, however, deserted during the strong westerly gales on the passage to Aboukir, where the English arrived on the 2d of March. Too much of the day of their arrival had elapsed, to admit of the landing being effected before the approach of night: and an unfortunate succession of strong northerly gales, attended by a heavy swell, augmenting the difficulties of a coast naturally dangerous, rendered it, till the 8th, impossible to disembark. Though it was not originally intended to have commenced operations on the side of Alexandria, the long delay of the fleet at Marmorice, for the vain purpose of procuring a reinforcement of Greeks and Turks induced the general to change his opinion, and to proceed at this time.* From the time of the arrival of the English, at Aboukir, to their landing, they had the mortification of seeing the scattered divisions of the French army marching

* Aboukir is a small port, E. N. E. of Alexandria: the interval along the coast is rocky, and dangerous. Though the Rosetta branch of the Nile is navigable to small vessels, yet none of force sufficient to cover a landing can approach it. The Delta coast is shoal to the Damietta branch; which admits of vessels of greater burthen, but not sufficient to obtain a footing against any well-directed resistance: farther along the coast, to Jaffa and Acre, is worse.—The lake Mareotis, extending along the the fouth fide of the peninsula of Aboukir, was the ancient mouth of the Nile, by Canopus. The river penetrating, without resistance, into the bed, forsaken by the Nile, enlarged it more and more, into a vast lake, and still continues to enlarge it; in so much, that the isthmus which unites Aboukir to the continent, and along which the canal is carried, which furnishes water to Alexandria, is threatened with final ruin. For the defence of this isthmus, the Arabian princes, the caliphs, set about forming a mound, or dyke, of which, however, traces are only to be found in two places. It is conjectured, either that it was never completed, or that it gave way before the violence of the waves, which are dashed against it, for part of the year, by the northern winds.—This lake, except in the season of the inundation, is nearly dry.

daily

daily along the beach into that fort, and batteries erected, on the sand-hills, to oppose their disembarkation. On the evening of March 7th, the wind changing to the northward, and the sea becoming more calm, the general was enabled to reconnoitre the shore, and determine on the spot for landing; while sir Sidney Smith, who had been dispatched to lake Maadie, in three armed launches, to ascertain some points, the possession of which might be of service, having assailed a battery, taken a blockhouse defended by forty men, and boarded a guard-boat at the entrance of Aboukir lake, returned, with a chief of brigade captive, and an ass, with its driver, to the unspeakable amusement of the whole fleet. Trivial as this adventure may appear, its effect on the army was electric; every man wished to have been of the party, and looked forward to the morning with emulation.

At three o'clock, on the morning of the 8th, on the signal rocket from the admiral's ship, the boats, having received the troops, proceeded to rendezvous near the ship Mondovi, which was anchored about a gun-shot from the shore. Here, they were to assemble, and be drawn up, within the armed vessels stationed to cover their landing, and wait for orders. This division of the army amounted nearly to 6,000 men, and occupied about a hundred and fifty boats. The clear silence of the night, and the interesting solemnity of the scene, no words can adequately describe. Along a space of six miles to the shore, nothing was to be heard but the deep murmur of thousands of oars dipping in the sea, and incessantly urging the flower of a brave army to the severest destiny of man. The line of the English boats reached the rendezvous about day-light, where, after making the necessary military preparations, which were not completed till eight o'clock, they remained for some time in the midst of the bay, menacing every part of the coast, for such was the extent of anchorage occupied by the fleet, and so great the distance of many of them from any one given point, that it was not till nine o'clock, that the signal could be made for the boats to advance. Under the direction of the honourable captain Cochrane, of the Ajax, protected by the necessary vessels, and attended by those under sir Sidney Smith, who had the charge of the launches and field artillery, the whole division moved towards the shore. It was ten o'clock before the troops arrived at the point of disembarkation, which was narrow, and a hill, that commanded the whole, seemed nearly inaccessible. The French, fully prepared for their reception, permitted them to advance till they were within reach of their numerous batteries, with which they had occupied, at distances, a space of nearly three miles; when they opened so tremendous a discharge of grape shot, and shells of all dimensions, as threatened the English with immediate destruction. Our boats had a good way to row, and were, for some time, under the fire of fifteen pieces of artillery, and the musketry of 2,500 men. Undaunted by this dreadful prospect, with the fire of the castle, flanking their right, they made good their landing, overcoming the impetuosity of the French, who poured down in torrents to the beach, and even attacked our men

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in the boats, and breaking the charge of a body of cavalry. The English regiments went up to the mouth of the cannon, seized them, and drove the French artillerymen from their batteries, with the bayonet. Emulous of the glory of this arduous day, the seamen, harnessing themselves to the field-artillery, with ropes, drew it on shore, in defiance of the batteries, to which they replied only by loud and triumphant shouts. The 23d regiment and the four flank companies of the 40th, ascended the great sand-hill, to which all the fortifications of the enemy appeared to refer, with a coolness and intrepedity, that, for some moments, paralyzed opposition, and reflected immortal honour on their commander, colonel Spencer. These troops, having gained the summit, took seven pieces of artillery, and pursued the enemy down the back of the hill. The centre hill carried, all the support of the enemy's flanks was cut off, and the English were playing upon their rear. There were not more than 2000 of the English landed when the enemy began to yield. On both sides the loss was considerable. The French employed about 4000 infantry, and 600 cavalry, in this engagement. Victory was the reward of resolution, ardour, and intrepidity. The English took possession of the height, their advanced post being about four miles from Aboukir, while the French retreated towards Alexandria. The loss of the English, on this day, in killed and wounded, was 554. The loss of the enemy was not ascertained. Sir Ralph Abercromby, in his dispatches to government, modestly says, "It must have been considerable." The English took eight cannon, with a quantity of ammunition. By night, the whole of the army had landed. The English being ignorant of the real situation of the enemy, and but partially acquainted with the country, it was judged inexpedient to pursue the advantages of a first success: from the 9th to the 12th, our army were engaged in landing the stores and provisions.

Menou profited of this pause, to reinforce the garrison, so that when the English came in sight of the enemy, on the evening of the 12th, they found them strongly posted among sand-hills and palm-trees, four miles from the walls of the ancient Alexandria eastward, and numbering about 5,000 infantry, besides a body of 600 cavalry, aided by flying artillery. The English amounted to 13 or 14,000, but their cavalry was badly mounted, and they were deficient in artillery. Early on the morning of the 13th, they, however, moved forwards to the attack. The left wing was first in motion, taking the edge of lake Maadie, and designing to turn the right of the French; the right, acting as a reserve, covered the movement, and kept in a parallel with the first line. The centre marched slowly on the other side of a height, which, concealing them from view, general Lanusse imagined the left wing to be insulated. Under this persuasion, he advanced into the plain, hoping to overpower it by a brisk attack. This was conducted with all the impetuosity of French cavalry, and as resolutely repulsed by the 90th and 92d regiments; particularly the former, whom their antagonists unfortunately mistook for dismounted cavalry, but found them on their knees, prepared to receive the charge. Meanwhile, the English

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his centre had appeared on the height. As it was no longer possible to flank the left wing, Lanuffe commenced his retreat, which he conducted with great ability, to the heights of Nicopolis. From this position, the French might have easily been forced by the ardour of their assailants, who, in the midst a victorious career, were ordered to desist: on reconnoitering the situation of the enemy, it was judged imprudent to attempt a position, that could not, when gained, be occupied. Recovering from their dismay, on seeing a halt, commanded at the moment when they expected to be driven within the walls of the city, the French came forward, and enjoyed the satisfaction of galling the retreat of the English. The French, on this day, according to their own statement, lost, in killed and wounded, above 900. The loss of the English was very great: it exceeded in killed, wounded, and missing, 1200, officers and privates.

During this engagement, general Abercromby had a horse shot under him, and was rescued from being enveloped among the French cavalry, by the 90th regiment, who received the charge upon their bayonets. The English, with their right to the sea, near the Roman camp, and their left to the canal of Alexandria, at this time dry, opposite the point of lake Maadie, were assiduously employed in getting their heavy cannon on shore, and fortifying their camp. Through the intelligent activity of sir Sidney Smith, they had discovered plenty of water, and, by his interest with the inhabitants, were liberally supplied with provisions. Leaving a strong guard on the heights of Nicopolis, to impose on the English, the French employed themselves in repairing the works of Alexandria; dispatching also a vessel, to acquaint the government with what had happened, and to inform Gantheaume of the position of the English fleet. On the 19th of March, fort Aboukir capitulated to the English: while Menou arriving from Cairo, the whole of his disposable force was on the 20th concentrated at Alexandria. This junction might, perhaps, have been prevented, had the English, by cutting the dyke which separates it from lake Maadie, let the sea into the lake Mareotis.

The English occupied a line, about a mile in extent, nearly four miles from Alexandria, having a sandy plain in their front, the sea, on their right, and the lake of Aboukir and the canal of Alexandria, at that time dry, on their left. Their flanks were covered by gun-boats and redoubts filled with artillery. Here Menou resolved to attack them, on the ensuing morning. He proclaimed a louis-d'or for each man who would volunteer to commence the action by turning the right of his enemy. This was undertaken by the invincibles, amounting to 900 men. Through the vigilance of the emissaries of sir Sidney Smith, general Abercromby was apprised of the design on the evening of the 20th. The action commenced with a sham attack on the left of the English, about two hours before day-light, on the 21st of March; and was immediately succeeded by one real and vigorous on the right, where the French, mounted on dromedaries, were twice repulsed with great slaughter. At this time, general Abercromby took horse, and rode towards the scene of action. After a dreadful struggle, in which La-

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nuſe and many of the invincibles were ſlain, and to which they were ſtimulated by liquor, they ſucceeded in turning the right of the Engliſh. Eager to ſecond the efforts of Lanuſſe, Ramphon boldly charged the reſerve, conſiſting of the 42d, together with a corps of Germans and others, under the command of general Stewart, and the 28th, under major-general Moore, the ſenior officer, and conſequently chief in command of the reſerve, which had moved to the ſupport of the right.

The left wing of the 42d regiment, under the command of major Stirling, was ordered to advance to the ſupport of the left of the 28th. This having been effected, captain Biſſet of the light company was directed to keep a good look out on the left, then unſupported. A ſmart firing immediately commenced on the right and front; and ſoon after a gun was fired on the left. In the rear were heard ſome perſons ſpeaking French in a low tone of voice. Theſe were at firſt miſtaken for ſome of general Stewart's foreign brigade, ſuppoſed to be coming up to the aid of the 42d regiment. But on approaching cloſer, they were diſcovered to be a French battalion, marching up in open column to the rear of the corps, with one field piece and ſix horſes. To avoid being placed between two fires, the left wing charged inſtantly, threw the French battalion into confuſion, and made great ſlaughter. In this onſet their gun and horſes were captured. The enemy were preſſed ſo hard, that the remains of this battalion ſought ſhelter in an old ruin, having been prevented from getting farther to the rear by the right wing of the 42d then coming up to the aſſiſtance of the left. To major Stirling, who at this time entered the ruin cloſe upon the heels of the flying enemy, two French officers preſented themſelves and begged their lives. This having been granted, the remainder were ordered to lay down their arms; and major Stirling having immediately advanced to the officer who carried the ſtandard, and ſeized it from him, they inſtantly complied.

Major Stirling, perceiving ſerjeant Sinclair to be at this time cloſe by him, and knowing him to be a truſty ſoldier, he committed to him the charge of the ſtandard, at the ſame time ordering him to ſee the priſoners into the rear, under the guard of twelve men. Serjeant Sinclair being wounded by a ſabre in the head, and left for dead, the ſtandard was picked up by a private of the 28th.

The right wing having been now formed, both that and the left regained the ground they had previouſly occupied. There they were met by two ſtrong columns of the enemy advancing, on whom they commenced a very ſharp fire. Colonel Stewart ordered an immediate charge, by which the enemy were driven back 200 yards. This was an important period of the action; for a body of French cavalry were then obſerved, ready to attack the 42d in rear. Colonel Stewart, therefore gave inſtant orders to halt. Thus, after conſiderable fatigue, and their ammunition nearly expended, the 42d beheld itſelf nearly ſurrounded, and freſh detachments of the enemy advancing. But as danger increaſed, the royal highlanders were ſtimulated to additional exertion. A fortunate circumſtance at this moment occurred.

General

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General Stewart's foreign regiment, who had not hitherto borne a great ſhare in the action, arrived, fully provided with ammunition. By three well directed vollies, they forced a part of the French infantry to retire into a hollow in rear.

The 42d, on being at this time obliged to retire through the foreign corps in files, were unavoidably broken. Obſerving their ſituation, the French cavalry impetuouſly charged them on the left; and in this charge the brave ſir Ralph Abercromby received his mortal wound.*

Six hundred and fifty of the invincibles, thirty-ſeven of whom had periſhed by their colours, lay extended on the ground, when the remainder entreated, and obtained quarter.† The main body of the French, in a heavy column, preſſed at this moment through the Engliſh line, towards the rear of the camp; accompanied by the cavalry under general Roize, who directed a furious charge on the rear of the reſerve. This was, however, broken by the excavated nature of the ground. It was full of excavated pit-holes, about three feet deep; which the ſand raiſed about the banks another foot or two, as conveniences for the Engliſh ſoldiers before the landing of the tents. In this ground the French were completely routed. So many of their generals‡ had now fallen, that the French ſoldiers were long engaged without orders; till Menou, after two hours deliberation, ordered a retreat, which they executed under cover of the oppoſite hills, lined with cannon. Perceiving the advantages of the French poſition, and wanting cavalry, the Engliſh were contented to haraſs their retreat; and at 11 o'clock, they re-occupied the heights of Nicopolis. The left, commanded by general Hutchinſon, ſhared comparatively but little in the ſtruggle of this glorious day, the ſucceſs of which was greatly promoted by the officers and ſeamen under Sidney Smith. Eleven thouſand of the enemy are ſtated to have been engaged; but by conſtantly removing their killed, during the action, the extent of their loſs, though ſuppoſed to amount to 3 or 4000, was effectually concealed. The Engliſh too ſuffered greatly, but moſt in the death of their beloved commander, general ſir Ralph Abercromby, who died of a wound he had received

* The Highland ſociety, at London, in grateful acknowledgement, and commemoration of the valour of their countrymen, on this day, preſented the 42d regiment with a piece of plate, value 100 guineas: inſcribed with an appropriate motto and deſigns. A ſilver medal was alſo ſtruck, in commemoration of the capture of Buonaparte's invincible ſtandard: one to be given to each private as well as officer in the regiment, or, if killed or dead, to their neareſt ſurviving relations. The cool and intrepid courage of colonel Stewart's foreign corps, and of the 28th regiment, on whom, as well as the 42d, the fury of the enemy principally fell, it is agreed, on all hands, was alſo, on this important day, particularly diſtinguiſhed.

† A principal cauſe of the deſperate bravery of the French was a report, circulated by their generals, that the Engliſh would grant no quarter!

‡ Among theſe was general Lanuſſe. Being very ſeverely wounded in the thigh, the bone of which was ſhattered, he was told that, in order to ſave his life, he muſt ſubmit to an amputation. To this operation, the general refuſed his conſent, ſaying, "I do not wiſh to ſurvive this diſgraceful day." A mortification enſued, and he died in a few days thereafter.

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in this conflict, on board the Foudroiant, March 28. During the early part of the engagement, when in the darkness of night, unable to distinguish friend from foe, he was involved among the enemy, he was rescued from immediate destruction, only by the affectionate valour of his own troops. To the first of these who came up to him, he said, "Soldier, if you know me, don't name me!" At that instant, a French dragoon suspecting the prize he had lost, rode up to the general, in the midst of his own guard, made a cut at him, but, not being quite near enough, merely penetrated to his shirt, grazing the skin with the point of his sabre. The dragoon's horse wheeling about, he made a second attempt, by a lunge, that passed the general's side and right arm, which he instantly closed. The dragoon being at this instant shot, the sabre remained in the general's possession, who presented it to sir Sidney Smith, then at his side! He was soon after wounded in the thigh; but could not be prevailed on to retire, till victory was decided. Having been wounded two hours, he fainted, as soon as he saw the retreat of the French. A large incision was made, to extract the ball, which could not be found, though the general seemed hopeful of recovery. To the inexpressible regret of his family and country, this hope was disappointed: he concluded an honourable and arduous service of forty-six years, at an advanced age, on the field of glory, and in the arms of victory! He had endeared himself to his family, by the habitual practice of every relative and social duty; by the amiableness of his manners, the tenderness of his affections, the simplicity and integrity of his life. No man ever felt more deeply the awful responsibility attached to a commander-in-chief. "These victories," replied sir Ralph, being congratulated on his successes, "make me melancholy." He considered war as a solemn, though a trying duty; and regarded victory of no value, but as it tended to promote the interests and the repose of society. Such a character will be gratefully numbered among the highest benefactors of mankind!

The command of the British army now devolved to general Hutchinson, who had served under general sir Ralph Abercromby, by whom he was warmly beloved and highly esteemed, and who, speaking with great modesty of himself, in his account of the great and decisive action of the 21st, lamented the death of his illustrious friend, though in strains of friendship, yet with the precision of truth. The loss of the English, on this day, in killed, wounded, and 32 missing, amounted to 1225.—The number of troops, that sailed, on this expedition, under sir Ralph Abercromby, was originally about 17,000. By sickness, and the loss on the 8th and 13th, the number of effective men had been greatly reduced. And all the marines were left at Aboukir: so that, on the 21st, the number of our troops, brought into the field, did not much exceed 11,000; which was nearly the same with that of the French. A corps of Turks, about six or seven hundred, during the whole of the action, kept at the distance of about half a mile. The Turks were greatly intimidated by the repeated drubbings they had received from the French.

The French line, passing in front of the British, extended from the Rosetta-

Roſetta-gate of the ancient city along the Aboukir-road, to the Alexandrian canal, then over a bridge to the edge of lake Mareotis; and turning to their right along the edge of the lake, encompaſſed the gardens on both ſides of the canal, to the weſtern environ of Alexandria. Separated from the enemy by a valley of about a mile, the Britiſh extended from the ſea to where the canal formed an elbow, in a ſouthern direction; they were in poſſeſſion of lakes Aboukir and Maadie, with armed launches up to the left of their front, and along the northern bank of the canal. Both armies were ſufficiently exhauſted, to be deſirous of a temporary repoſe. By the engagements of the 8th, 13th, and 21ſt of March, Egypt had in reality been delivered from the dominion of its tyrannical invaders.

Towards the end of March, 57 Turkiſh veſſels, and 6000 troops, under the captain Baſhaw, arrived in the road of Aboukir. Theſe troops, having taken poſt at Maiſon quarrée, joined a detachment under colonel Spencer, which, encamping at Etko, on the 7th, reached Roſetta on the 8th of April. After a ſpirited but inadequate reſiſtance, fort Julien and Roſetta ſurrendered on the 19th. The reduction of Roſetta facilitated the procuring of ſupplies, as well as the operations of the army. Had the enemy concentrated their force at this place, ſuperior as they were in cavalry, the conteſt might have terminated very differently. But the diviſions of the French army were at their height; and ſo little was Menou acquainted with the deſigns and movements of his antagoniſt, that the death of general Abercromby was unknown to him till the 8th of April, when he was informed of that event by a deſerter. He had then but recently reinforced Rahmanich, Roſetta, and Leſbeh. El Aſt, indeed, was more firmly ſecured by the junction of generals Le Grange, Morand, and Valentin, who, with 3900 men, had ably intrenched themſelves in that poſition. The Engliſh had, April 13, cut the dyke which ſeparates lake Maadie from that of Mareotis, but the waters did not ſpread with the expected rapidity. They, however, poſſeſſed a good flotilla on the Nile; and were encouraged by a reinforcement of 2900 men, which landed at Aboukir, on the 5th of May.

Seven thouſand Engliſh, and 6000 Turks, ſupported by a flotilla, having advanced againſt El Aſt, the batteries on the right bank of the Nile were ſo much haraſſed by the Engliſh flotilla, that they abandoned this poſt on the 7th of May, and, leaving a ſufficient garriſon at Alexandria, fell back on Rahmanich. By the poſſeſſion of this poſt, and by means of their cavalry, they hoped to keep the greateſt part of the Delta in their power, preſerve their communication with Cairo, and be ready, in caſe that Gantheaume's ſquadron ſhould arrive at any point, to facilitate the debarkation of the troops which they expected, and which, of courſe, would not attempt to gain the port of Alexandria. By this time lord Keith, reinforced by part of the ſquadron under ſir J. Borlaſe Warren, and alſo by the captain Baſhaw with four ſhips of the line, had, altogether, 17 ſail of the line before Alexandria, and one in the bay of Aboukir. Sir Sidney Smith had proceeded up the Nile with a number of Albaniane, and the

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the English gun-boats. Some gun-boats of the French had been enabled to retreat, before them, to Cairo. The French at this time, in Alexandria, drew their subsistence from Rhamanich, on the backs of camels, across the shallowest parts of the inundation.

In consequence of the movement of the French, general Hutchinson resolved also to move at the head of 4000 troops; and instead of merely keeping his position before Alexandria, to commence a campaign in the field, by an attack on Rhamanich; which he made on the 9th. Between the 9th and 10th of May, the enemy retreated to Cairo; and the greater part of their flotilla, prevented from escaping by the batteries on the right of the Nile, became the property of the victors. The loss of Rahmanich is said to have deeply affected the French. By this event, Alexandria was insulated; and the end for which Rahmanich had been occupied by Menou, the command of the Delta, and the landing of the troops under Gantheaume, appeared no longer attainable. The murmurs of the army only augmented the jealousy of the commander-in-chief, who, dreading a mutiny in favour of a new general, sent Reynier* on board a ship bound for France, where he found Damas, Daure, and Boyer, companions of his fortune, because, like himself, supposed the enemies of Menou. About this time, a convoy of germs, coming from Cairo by lake Menouf, ignorant of the retreat of general Legrange from Rahmanich, fell into the possession of the English, with 150 prisoners, and several guns intended for the defence of Alexandria. The convoy was extremely valuable; consisting of clothing, wine, spirits, stores, and nearly 5000*l.* in money.

When the Mamalukes took possession of Cairo, after the battle of Heliopolis, they rendered a most essential service to the vizier, by recalling the French from the pursuit of his flying forces, and employing them in the reduction of that city. His army being thus preserved from absolute dispersion, was permitted to recruit at Jaffa. But here it immoveably remained; the vizier having resolved not to move a step to the assistance of the English, till, in fact, they had conquered for themselves. It was not, therefore, until informed of the brilliant success of his allies, and aided by their artillery and officers, that he was induced to march, at the head of 25,000 men, with whom he reached Belbeis on the 7th of May, and immediately threw up entrenchments. Numbers, who waited only to ascertain whether this army would pass the desert unmolested, convinced of their security, now flocked to his standard. The French forces at Cairo, under general Belliard, being about this time strengthened by the junctions of general Legrange, from Rahmanich, it was resolved to defeat the vizier before the arrival of the Anglo-Turkish army, commanded by general Hutchinson. Nearly 5000 infantry, and 900 cavalry, chiefly from Rahmanich, were selected for the execution of this design. Had the French been permitted to make an attack on such a rabble as the Turkish army, which

* An officer of distinguished merit, and well known in Europe, from his having been chief of the staff during the famous retreat of general Moreau in Suabia, 1799.

they

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they would have done, and probably in the night, their defeat would have been certain. Major Holloway, Major Hope, of the artillery, and other English officers present, therefore, perſuaded the vizier to anticipate an attack by making one.

On the 15th of May, his highneſs, the grand vizier, received intelligence, that the enemy were in full march from Cairo, on the road towards Belbeis. The vizier, after it was dark, ordered Tahir-Baſhaw, with 3000 cavalry, and three light field-pieces, to advance to meet them; and, if a favourable opportunity ſhould offer, during the obſcurity of the night, to attack; but, if not, to impede their march as much as poſſible. About ten o'clock at night they met three leagues from the Ottoman camp, when each halted, and lay on their arms during the night, and until eight o'clock in the morning, at which time Tahir-Baſhaw commenced an attack. He was ſoon after reinforced by 1500 cavalry. It was now found that the enemy had come forward with about fourteen pieces of artillery, 600 cavalry, and 4000 infantry. The vizier, therefore, ordered Mahomed-Baſhaw to move forward with 5000 men, cavalry and Albanian infantry, and nine light field-pieces. The French had eight-pounders in the field. The other Engliſh officers, beſides major Holloway and major Hope, were captain Lacey, of the royal engineers, and captain Leake, of the royal artillery. Captain Lacey accompanied Mahomed-Baſhaw, and captain Leake Tahir-Baſhaw. Each of theſe officers received their orders from major Holloway, remaining ſtill near the perſon of the vizier; who, after ſending forward his advanced guard, came up himſelf, and took the command. Major Hope was with the artillery.

The enemy moved into a wood of date-trees, where they were attacked by the Turkiſh cavalry and infantry with great ſpirit for three hours, when, retiring from the wood, they took a poſition on the left, their left flanked by a wood, and forming a hollow ſquare on the right. The Albaneſe infantry advanced to the edge of the wood, and, in this ſituation, galled them much; and, on the Turks threatening their right, the French changed their poſition, and attempted to gain the heights, in which they were prevented by a rapid movement of Turkiſh cavalry, who gained the ſummit. In this manœuvre, they were annoyed by two guns which were advanced on the occaſion. At this time, the French commenced a decided retreat, and were driven beyond El-Hanka, a diſtance not leſs than ſeven miles from the place of the firſt operations. The grand vizier, who had commanded his troops, as major Holloway reported, with great gallantry and prompt deciſion, then gave orders for them not to purſue them any farther. The loſs on either ſide, for the time in which they were engaged, was ſmall. The Turks had about thirty killed, and eighty wounded. The French had about fifty killed. The number of their wounded could not be aſcertained, as they carried them off the field. The diſpoſition of the Turkiſh army, the order of march, and all their movements, were arranged by major Holloway. It was by following his counſels, that the grand vizier was enabled, during near ſeven hours, to keep in check the French army, to counteract its plans,

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to attack it, to seize every advantage of position and ground, and, at last, after manœuvring with science for so long a time, to repulse it with loss, and gain a complete victory.

While this passed on the side of Cairo, fort Lesbeh surrendered to a detachment from the vizier's army. —These successes reanimated the drooping energy of the vizier, and taught him to confide in the spirit and genius of his allies. On this day, a detachment from the troops, under general Hutchinson, surprised a convoy, conducted by colonel Cavalier, who had been foraging for the garrison of Alexandria. Six hundred men, (infantry, cavalry, and artillery,) the prime of the enemy, together with a considerable portion of their dromedary corps, one four-pounder, and 550 camels, were on this occasion surrendered. From the 9th to the 20th, the English had taken near 1600 prisoners, including those taken at fort Bourdos, which followed the evacuation of fort Lesbeh. It was about this period, that Osman-Bey-Tambourgi, the successor of Murad, assured general Hutchinson, as the versatile Murad himself had also done on his part, of his attachment to the English, whom he joined with 1500 Mamalukes. While, from political motives, Osman and others encamped near the English, they privately, according to the usual policy and perfidy of barbarians, assured the French that they would commit no hostility against them, and they kept their word! Murad-Bey died on the 21st of April, after an illness of three days, but not without strong suspicions of his having been poisoned. The situation of affairs not permitting the interment of his remains in the sepulchre of the Mamalukes, he was buried at Savoagni, near Tahta; his companion in arms breaking his weapons over his tomb, and declaring that no one was now worthy to wield them!

On the capture of Rahmanieh, general Hutchinson proceeded to invest Cairo. Owing, however, to the low state of the river, the bar at Rosetta, and the consequent difficulty of bringing the heavy artillery up the river, as well as procuring provisions, general Hutchinson did not arrive at Embabeh, before Gizeh, till the 20th of June. He resolved to attack Gizeh on the left, while the vizier pressed Cairo on the right bank of the Nile; and a bridge of boats was thrown over the river, at Choubra, to keep up a communication between the armies. The fortifications of Cairo, which were commenced by Kleber, had been assiduously continued by Menou; but, extending over a space of twelve miles, they did not admit much defence with a garrison of 8000, who had, besides, to overawe the inhabitants, agitated at the proximity of a victorious army, and dreading the resentment of the vizier.

On the 21st, the combined forces advanced on both sides of the river. A capitulation was desired by the garrison on the 22d, which, being assented to, was negotiated by brigadier-general Hope, and ratified on the 27th. The French could not have effected a retreat: as little were they competent to the defence of Cairo; their ammunition nearly exhausted, their treasury empty, and provisioned only to the middle of July. By this capitulation, they were to be conveyed to the French ports, in the Mediterranean, with their arms, artillery, baggage, and effects, within fifty days from the date of the ratification; men of letters and naturalists were permitted to retain their papers and collections;

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lections; an exoneration was granted to such of the people as had adhered to the cause of France; and it was stipulated, that Menou might avail himself of these conditions, for the surrender of Alexandria, provided his acceptance of them was notified to the general commanding before Alexandria, within ten days from the date of the communication being made to him. It was also stipulated, in a private article of this convention, that the wife, daughter, aid-de-camp, and all the effects of general Menou, should be sent from Cairo to Alexandria by the allied powers. There were embarked, in all, from Cairo, at Aboukir, upwards of 12,000 persons, exclusive of 1000 sick, and a number of invalids. During a novel and critical march, in conducting this garrison through the country, notwithstanding the mixture of Turks, British, and French, considerable harmony prevailed.

Scarcely was the capitulation signed, when an army, under general Baird, appeared on the banks of the Nile, from India. A part of that force had arrived from the bay of Bengal, September 14, 1800, at Trincomalé, in the isle of Ceylon, where it staid two months, and where it was augmented by a number of troops that had been sent down there from Bombay. The fleet leaving Ceylon on the 18th of February, 1801, steered along the coast of Malabar, still ignorant of their destination, till they arrived, March 23, at Bombay. The health of the troops, much impaired, was soon restored by the vegetables of that place. Here general Baird took the command of the little army, which, after a passage of twenty weeks from Trincomalé, arrived at Coffir in Egypt. The troops that landed, under colonel Murray, at Suez, was an advanced division of the Bombay detachment. The navigation of the Red Sea was arduous, difficult, and dangerous; from rocks and shoals, and contrary winds blowing sometimes directly from the quarter of their destination. Two of their transports were lost, and many others damaged.—After staying a short time at Coffir, they crossed the Desert of Thebes, with many difficulties, in ten days, and arrived at Gennat, on the banks of the Nile, about 400 miles from Grand Cairo. The route of the army from Coffir was through a defile of 150 miles, between hills and barren rocks. In this desert not a particle of herbage was to be seen, and scarcely any kind of vegetation, until they arrived at the banks of the Nile, which was first descryed at Reneh. This long and toilsome march they could not have performed without the friendly aid of the Mamalukes and Arabs.

The joy which the soldiers expressed, at the sight of water, is not to be described: though the vehemence of their thirst was thereby increased, and also their impatience to allay it. The army marched along the river from Gennat to Kingé, from whence they fell down in boats to Cairo. This, though the distance was above 300 miles, was effected, through the rapidity of the stream, in nine days. The French, as our little army advanced, evacuated their posts on the river, and retreated to their head-quarters. The whole of the Indian army, now assembled, under general Baird, opposite Grand Cairo, consisted of 5000 British, and 2000 sepoys. After halting here for some weeks, they were marched down the country, and encamped before Rosetta, twenty-five miles from Alexandria.

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Alexandria. It was extremely mortifying to our brave army from the eaſt, that, after taſting ſo deeply of the toils and hardſhips of war, fortune did not permit them to participate, on this occaſion, in its glories.

General Menou, far from appearing to approve of the article in the capitulation at Cairo, agreeably to which he might have ſurrendered on the terms acceded to by general Belliard, increaſed the fortifications round Alexandria, particularly at Nicopolis, and avowed, in his diſpatches, the determination of burying himſelf under its ruins. To relieve the place of a number of uſeleſs mouths, about the middle of May, the members of the inſtitute, and the commiſſion of arts, though they had been formerly put in military requiſition, were ordered to depart for France. They embarked in a ſmall veſſel; but, when they were quitting the port, the Engliſh refuſed to let them paſs. Attempting to return, they were menaced with being ſunk by the French! and it was not till after ſeveral days anxiouſly paſſed, during which they were ſupported by the Engliſh, that Menou could be prevailed on to take off his prohibition of their return. Nor did Menou yet deſpair of receiving the reinforcement intruſted to Gantheaume, who, after remaining two days within thirty leagues of Alexandria, was obliged to bear away, on being diſcovered by the Engliſh fleet. It was therefore reſolved, by the allies, to accelerate their attack. On the 17th of Auguſt, 2000 Albanians attempted a ſand-hill commanding the ſeaſhore, to the left of Nicopolis.—A party of 200, under colonel Spencer, took poſſeſſion of a hill, in front of the enemy's right, between the lakes and the firſt bridge of Alexandria. General Menou, who was in that part of the French intrenched camp, oppoſite our poſt, ſent about 600 men to drive colonel Spencer from his poſition. They advanced in column, with fixed bayonets, and, without firing a ſhot, till they got very cloſe to our men. The colonel then gave immediate orders to charge. It was obeyed, and the enemy were driven back, with great ſlaughter. At ſunriſe, on the 18th, the inundation having taken effect, lake Mareotis was covered with veſſels and boats, containing troops, which were protected by fifty gun-boats. The troops, commanded by major-general Coote, having landed at the caſtle of Marabout, and being gallantly aſſiſted by the Turkiſh corvettes, under the honourable captain Cochrane, it became ſoon a heap of ruins, and capitulated on the 21ſt. In endeavouring to fire the Engliſh ſhipping, the French had conſumed their own flotilla, and two of their frigates were ſunk near the fort. On the 22d, the allies entered the harbour of the old port, opening a ſevere cannonade on ſome troops poſted on the bank of the ancient canal, in which they were ſupported by the flotilla on lake Mareotis. A detachment, under major-general Coote, took ſeven pieces of cannon, and made conſiderable impreſſion on the French, who had fixed themſelves to the right of fort le Turcq, ſtrengthened by reinforcements from Nicopolis. On the 27th, Menou, however, requeſted a capitulation, which he affirmed to have been neceſſitated by the evacuation of Cairo: but Alexandria could not long have reſiſted this neceſſity, independently of the evacuation: a fact known to general Hutchinſon, and which probably

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baſely induced him not to precipitate the fate of the enemy, as he might have done, by more vigorous meaſures. The garriſon was in great diſtreſs, and threatened by the near approaches of famine. Indeed, the protraction of the ſiege, after the ſurrender of Cairo, is only to be defended, on the ground, that the French general might feel it neceſſary to ſupport the ſplendid boaſt of burying himſelf under the ruins of Alexandria, by the parade, at leaſt, of reſiſtance. The conditions, which had been granted to Belliard, were not refuſed to Menou. An attempt was made to include the acquiſitions of the *learned men* among the articles of confiſcation; but, on their reſolutely declaring that they would burn their papers rather than reſign them to the Engliſh, the conteſt was relinquiſhed. A cargo, however, of Egyptian antiquities, which they could neither conceal, nor conſume by fire, was brought to the Britiſh-muſeum. The inhabitants of Conſtantinople, conſidering the ſurrender of Alexandria, as the termination of the war in Egypt, manifeſted, on the occaſion, the moſt enthuſiaſtic joy. The cannon of the ſeraglio were fired; the city was ſplendidly illuminated; and the ſultan ordered fifty gold medals to be ſtruck, bearing a creſcent and ſtar in the centre, with a ſuitable inſcription, to be diſtributed among the Engliſh officers in Egypt; to ſeveral of whom, the grand vizier, in the name of his ſovereign, had before made both honourable and valuable preſents. A magnificient palace was built in Pera, and dedicated to be the reſidence, in all times to come, of the Engliſh ambaſſador at the Ottoman Porte.

During this arduous and intereſting conteſt, the Engliſh loſt twenty-four officers, and about 7 or 800 private men, including the naval as well as the military ſervice. Very different was the fate of France: which, in this memorable expedition to the Eaſt, concurred, not leſs than from 30 to 40,000 of their beſt troops, and almoſt annihilated her navy. Of the whole number of French ſent to Egypt, in the courſe of three years, there returned 23,000. They were accompanied by ſeveral hundreds of the natives of both ſexes.

General Hutchinſon, now advanced to the peerage, with the title of lord Hutchinſon, obtained leave, on account of his health, to return to England, and reſigned his command to lord Cavan, who remained in Egypt. Part of our troops returned to Britain at the ſame time with lord Hutchinſon. The Britiſh force, left in Egypt, in October, was 5000 men, excluſive of the Indian army: forming, altogether, a body of 12,000 men.

From the commencement of the war in Egypt, the Porte had formed a ſecret reſolution to change the government of that country, at the ſame time that both the grand vizier and captain baſhaw held out to the Beys and the Mamalukes the moſt unequivocal aſſurances that their authority would be immediately reſtored, on the deſtruction of the infidels.—On the expulſion of the French from Egypt, accordingly, ſeven of the Beys were invited to Alexandria, to hold a conference with the captain baſhaw, on the ſubject of certain arrangements neceſſary to be made for their re-eſtabliſhment. They were received on their arrival, with every demonſtration of hoſpitality and reſpect. On pretence of a wiſh that they might accompany him, in a vi-

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fit of ceremony, to the British commander at Alexandria, but in reality, with a view to send them to Constantinople, he treacherously engaged them to go on board a ship of war, whither he was, himself, to accompany them. But, after they had gone into the boats that were to carry them to the ship, they began to recollect the repeated advices and warnings that had been given them by general Hutchinson, never to trust themselves on board any Turkish vessels, and to apprehend some violence, after they should be lodged in the frigate. They required of the officers who had charge of them, to re-conduct them to the shore. The officers, pleading the orders of the high-admiral, refused to comply with their request. The Beys, grasping their arms, began to use force. A conflict ensued, in which four of the Beys were killed, and three wounded. Several of the boatmen shared the same fate. The grand vizier too, at the same time, attempted to secure as many of the Beys as he could, by force, or fraud. Some fell into his hands: others made their escape into Upper Egypt.

General Hutchinson, apprised of all this, ordered his troops under arms, remonstrated severely with both the grand vizier and captain bashaw, and reclaimed, in a menacing tone, the wounded Beys, the bodies of the slain for honourable sepulture, and the Beys also who were in the power of the vizier. The captain bashaw imputed the disaster that had befallen the seven Beys, whom he had invited to his residence, to themselves: whose suspicions, he said, were without foundation; and excused his own conduct from the orders that had been sent, both to himself and the grand vizier, from the Porte: which was well assured, that it was never the intention of the court of London, to take any part in the internal regulations, or government of Egypt; but, after the expulsion of the French, to leave the Ottomans to establish there, what form of government they should think proper. The captain-bashaw carried his head very high, and maintained great pomp and splendour: such as he deemed suitable to the sovereign dignity of the Porte. He affected to treat general Hutchinson, in some sort, as the guest of the grand signior; in sending him, regularly, a second course, consisting of all the delicacies that could be provided, to his table. Thus he artfully combined an air of hospitality with an air of superiority, and supremacy in Egypt. There were not a few, who said, that the general should have declined to accept the hospitality of the Turkish high-admiral, assumed greater state himself, and, in a word, a tone of mastery and controul, for a time, in a province recovered, almost solely, from the French, by the British arms. They were even of opinion, that it would have been as wise, as magnanimous policy, to have punished the treachery of the bashaw, and avenged the death of the three Beys, by hanging him up at the yard-arm of the frigate, on board of which he meant to decoy them. So great an act of justice would have struck the East with an admiration and awe of the British name, and exalted it above every name in the world.

There were, however, other considerations that weighed down the opposite scale, in the balance. Had it been the purpose of our government to retain possession of any port or ports in Egypt, such a measure might

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might perhaps have been accounted not less eligible than daring. But it was not the design of Britain to do any thing that might offend, and alienate, but, on the contrary, to cultivate the favour of her Turkish ally.

General Hutchinson did not embrace a line of conduct that would probably have been condemned by his court, as extravagant, and imprudent: nor yet did he tamely and meanly acquiesce in a measure dictated by barbarian perfidy. But, seeing a middle course, he demanded, with inflexible firmness, the freedom of the Beys, which was granted. There could not have been a fitter agent, in this business, than general Stewart, who, at the head of a strong detachment, carried the remonstrances and demands of the British commander-in-chief to the captain-bashaw.

But the Beys, though left at their own disposal, foresaw the evacuation of Egypt by the English, and the establishment of the power of the Turks, at least in the lower regions of that country. Their faithful Mamalukes were either dispersed or had fallen by the sword. They listened, therefore, to the fair promises that were made to them by the captain-bashaw and grand visier, and solemnly confirmed by their oaths on the Koran, of protection, favour, and preferment, if they would throw themselves into the arms of the sultan. They consented to relinquish their pretensions to any authority in Egypt; and signified this consent, in writing, to the grand signior, and also to general Hutchinson. The Porte, extended to Egypt the system of government by bashaws.

Thus terminated the revolution occasioned by the French invasion of Egypt. In the midst of all the toils, dangers, and conflicts of war and insurrection, the French were assiduous in exploring that renowned land, under all the views of physical and moral science, and in making collections in antiquities and natural history. Though they failed in the attempt to extend their political power, they enlarged the sphere of their knowledge. And they acquired information that may be of great use in the case of their ever engaging in another expedition; with or without the consent of the Porte, to Egypt.——Buonaparte, the author and conductor of the expedition to Egypt, on a retrospect of its progress, vicissitudes, and termination, consoled the French nation with the reflection, that "The army of the East had left, in Egypt, an immortal memory, which would, perhaps one day revive there the arts and institutions of society. And that history, at least, would not pass over in silence all that the French had done to introduce into that country, the arts and improvements of Europe." * How far this result, so greatly to be desired, is probable, or improbable, is a very interesting and curious question. Never, we apprehend, will the arts and sciences take root and flourish in Egypt, so long as it is under the domination of the Turkish government, and the Mahomedan religion. †

* View of the Republic, 23d November, 1801.

† In the course of this year the following question was proposed, as a subject for the annual prize discourse, by the University of Cambridge: "Quid est causæ, cur per plures sæculi, literæ et artes liberales, non nisi in Christianis populis floruerint." What is the reason why, for a number of ages, the liberal arts and sciences have flourished only in Christian countries? This was an ingenious question, and worthy of the university.

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CHAP. XIV.

Great Object of Buonaparte in the War with England.—The Colonization of Egypt his favourite Project.—French Menaces of invading England.—Sea Coast of France divided into Six Maritime Prefectures.—Effects produced by Threats of France throughout Great Britain.—Measures taken by Government for the Defence and Security of the British Isles.—General Disposition of the British Fleet.—Naval Engagements in the Bay of Algeziras.—Daring Attempt frustrated.—But Victory finally obtained by a British Squadron, under Sir James Saumarez.—Vain glorying and frantic Hopes of the French.

IT was the great object of Buonaparte, in the war with England, to strike at the root of her naval power and greatness, by cutting off, as much as possible, the sources of her commerce. Her Trans-atlantic colonies, in the reduced and ruined state of the French navy, were wholly beyond his reach. India, the great fountain of her wealth, it seemed not impossible to reach, by means of political intrigues as well as arms, through the establishment of a French colony in Egypt. Or, if that object should fail, or not be soon accomplished, the improvement, and the produce of Egypt, of itself, and the trade of the East, gradually allured to its own channel, through that noble isthmus, would compensate the loss of the French colonies in the West Indies, and throw such a mass of easy and natural commerce into the hands of France, the mistress of the Mediterranean, as might enable her, at least to divide, with Great Britain, the empire of the ocean. There was, besides, in the idea of colonizing Egypt, and restoring the natural prerogatives of those regions, something that warms the human breast by so many interesting recollections, something grand, as well as politically advantageous; and peculiarly fitted to take hold of a mind, at once heroic, and deeply tinctured with a love of letters. The colonization of Egypt was the darling child of Buonaparte. It was the grand pivot on which the aggrandisement of France, and his own glory and fame were to turn. Around this favourite project, other collateral objects were arranged. To harass, distract, and exhaust the financial resources of England, by menaces of invasion, was, of itself, a wise measure of war: but it derived an additional interest and importance, in the eyes of the chief consul, as it might afford an opportunity, while our fleets should be detained on our coasts, of slipping out a fleet, with succours to the French army in Egypt. While all was in movement on the

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side of the land, and camps were formed near the sea-coast, ships were equipped, and victualled in the principal ports, and gunboats, and other light vessels of war, were constructed and drawn, from time to time, to places of rendezvous on the British channel.

After the battle of Maringo had led to a negotiation with Austria, and preliminaries of peace were signed on the part of that power, though afterwards disavowed, by the count St. Julian, a grand camp began to be formed at Amiens, in September, 1800. It was occupied by detachments from what was called, the *chosen army*, commanded by general Murat, and was strengthened, from time to time, by additional numbers. A camp was also formed between Bruges and Ostend; another between Gravelines and Dunkirk; and a third, at Boulogne: which was destined, as it was generally understood, to be the principal point from which the French, like the Romans, under Julius Cæsar, were to pass over into Britain. These three camps, by the month of July, 1801, were occupied by a great number of troops, among whom were many emigrant Irishmen; as there also were in camps formed at Brest, St. Maloes, and on the coast of Normandy. The building of ships, and other preparations for an immense naval armament, were carried on with great activity, all along the Dutch and Flemish coasts, as well as those of France. Rumours were industriously circulated, and by almost all the French, and by many of the English, credited, that a corps of 25,000 men, all chosen troops, under the command of general Hedouville, convoyed by thirty French and Spanish ships of the line, and a proportionable number of frigates, would sail from Brest; that a second corps of 12,000 men, under the command of general Humbert, and escorted by five ships of the line, and a frigate, would sail from the harbours of Normandy; and a third corps, consisting of 20,000, under the convoy of one ship of the line, eight frigates, and a great number of smaller ships of war, from the harbours of Flanders and Piccardy. This is the most moderate computation of the force that was destined by the French government for the invasion of England, or of Ireland. Other statements raise it to twice that number of men. Certain it is, that the number of disposable troops, that might be employed by the French government, in any expedition, after the armistice of Steyer, and the peace of Luneville, was very great. But neither we, nor any others, we apprehend, of our countrymen, can ascertain, with any thing at all like an approximation to exactness, the real amount of the hostile armament. The lowest computation was probably nearest the truth. All was in motion, from the mouth of the Scheldt to the mouth of the Garronne.—The islands of Jersey and Guernsey were threatened with immediate invasion from St. Maloes, Granville, and Cherburg. Besides the armament at Brest, destined, as was supposed, to make a descent on the west of England, or more probably, on Ireland, there was a fleet of eight or nine vessels, under the command of admiral Gantheaume, ready to sail on some unknown expedition; and another of five ships of the line, under admiral la Touche. The combined fleets of France and Spain, that

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lay in the harbour of Breſt, ready, according to every appearance, to ſail, amounted, ſo early as January, 1801, to 52 ſail of the line.

Buonaparte, in order to combine his preparations at land with his preparations by ſea, and to reſtore and improve the navy, had lately divided the whole extent of the ſea-coaſts of France into ſix maritime prefectures; namely, thoſe of Breſt, Toulon, L'Orient, Rochfort, Havre, and Antwerp. Not only ſhips, but gun-boats, and flat-bottomed boats, were equipped under the direction of the prefects, along the whole line of the coaſt. Redoubts were thrown up, and furnaces prepared for the heating of balls, in the places ſuppoſed to be moſt liable to attacks by the Engliſh. Telegraphs were erected for communication among the different prefectures, with one another, and with Paris. Proclamations were iſſued, from time to time, by the prefects, calculated to animate the courage and the hopes of the French ſeamen. If any little advantage was gained, by accident, or by ſuperiority of numbers, over any of the Britiſh ſhips, it was magnified into an important victory, and a ſignal inſtance of naval proweſs:—The Britiſh iſles, and all the wealth of their commercial towns, were pointed out as the modern Carthage, whoſe ſpoils were to reward the enterpriſe and the valour of the modern Romans.

The Britiſh government and nation beheld theſe hoſtile preparations and threats without diſmay, though not without a degree of anxiety as well as indignation. From Caithneſs to the Land's End, all glowed with ardour to meet the enemy on the theatre of either land or ſea. The French had acquired the greateſt glory, throughout the whole courſe of the preſent war, by their martial achievements on the continent. Their title to fame and renown was juſt, and not to be diſputed. Yet all their exploits were found inſufficient to overcome the inveterate and ſalutary prejudice, that one Engliſhman is fully a match for two Frenchmen. Not only the ſoldiers, but, we have been well aſſured, many of the officers, and even ſome of the commanders of the militia regiments, profeſſed a firm perſuaſion of that maxim; not at any popular meetings, but in their ſocial and convivial parties with one another.—Orders were given, early in 1801, by the Britiſh miniſtry, to conſtruct, as ſoon as poſſible, a number of gun-boats for the protection of our coaſts, particularly at the entrances into our ports and the mouths of our navigable rivers. Application was made, with ſucceſs, by government to the directors of the Eaſt-India company, for the uſe of ſuch ſhips, as were not taken up, for the commerce of India, for the current year, to be employed in different ways and for different purpoſes. The town of Liverpool, ſolicited and obtained permiſſion, from the legiſlature, to provide various means for their own defence: and this noble example was followed in other parts of the kingdom.—As the hoſtile preparations of the enemy increaſed, the activity of our government, and the zeal of the people, were increaſed in proportion. In the end of July, a circular letter was iſſued from the office of the ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, to the lord-lieutenants of counties; communicating intelligence which had been received,

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red, "That the naval and military preparations which had been for some time past carried on, in the ports and on the coasts of France and Holland, had of late been pursued to a great extent, and with increased activity; and that these preparations being apparently directed to the object of making an attack on some part of the United kingdom, his majesty considered it as of the utmost importance, that the most effectual steps should be taken without loss of time, for employing, to the best advantage, that part of his military force, which the voluntary zeal and spirit of his subjects had placed in his hands, for the public security. The lords lieutenant were requested by the secretary, in the name of his majesty, to signify to the commanders of the several corps of volunteer cavalry and infantry within their respective counties, his majesty's earnest wish that all corps of that description might be kept in a state of the utmost readiness for such immediate service as might be conformable to their respective engagements, and as the exigencies of affairs might require. And it was particularly recommended, that, under the present circumstances, the respective corps of volunteer cavalry and infantry, should assemble for the purpose of performing their military exercises, as frequently as their necessary avocations would admit."

This recommendation and request was obeyed, throughout every part of the united kingdom, with the utmost alacrity. Field days and reviews were to be seen at every town, and almost in every parish. The whole country assumed a military air, and an attitude of defiance. The volunteers were ready either to march to any place where any body of the enemy should land or attempt a landing, or to take upon themselves the duty of the garrisons, if it should be thought necessary to withdraw the regulars. As it was understood that the Dutch fleet, under admiral De Winter, was ready to put to sea, and that the flotilla at Dunkirk, reinforced from time to time by detachments of troops from Amiens and Calais, and other parts of the coast, was ready to act at the same time that the flotilla at Boulogne was in a like state of forwardness, the lord-lieutenant of the counties of Suffolk and Essex, as well as the lieutenants of Kent and Sussex, directed inventories to be sent to them of the horses, waggons, and other articles in the counties. A number of posting and hand bills were printed, by order of government, to be distributed, in case of necessity, among the people, calling upon them to take up arms, and to employ other means calculated to embarrass and obstruct the progress of the enemy in case of actual invasion.

Towards the end of July, when the preparations of the enemy were so forward as to menace an actual attempt, strong piquet guards were mounted all along the coast, and orders issued for all the volunteers of the southern districts to be alert, and in a state of preparation to march, on a moment's warning. Four complete parks of artillery, forming a hollow square, were so arranged, at Woolwich, as to be able to set off, at a moment's warning, to any part of the country. The horses were harnessed in the centre, and the drivers and engineers slept on the spot. In the rear of the guns, which were in general 9 and 12 pounders, were the *chevaux-de-*

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frize, and ammunition waggons. Orders were given for re-embodying the ſupplementary militia, diſbanded at Chriſtmas, 1799, and their joining their reſpective regiments. Inſtructions were given out reſpecting the ſtate in which the troops were required to move at a moment's warning. "Being properly provided with country carriages, ammunition, and proviſions, and leaving all incumbrances behind them, they were to march, as much as poſſible, together, in the ſmall brigades of contiguous regiments into which they ſhould be divided, agreeably to the particular routes and orders that would be immediately forwarded from head-quarters, on the certainty of the enemy's appearance. Such brigades were to have each an appointed commander, or otherwiſe to be commanded by the eldeſt officer in rank for the time. In the firſt hurry of aſſembling the troops, on the landing of an enemy, it might not be poſſible, in all caſes, to preſcribe poſitive routes, and to prevent croſſing, crowding, and interfering in the march of ſo many bodies, moving from different places, and tending to the ſame point. The prudence and the arrangement of the ſenior officers, muſt therefore, in the beſt manner, obviate ſuch unavoidable difficulties. When the troops marched in corps, and encamped, they would be the more eaſily provided for: but when it was neceſſary that they ſhould be cantoned, or hurried on, they would be under a neceſſity of putting up with the moſt crowded and ſlighteſt accommodation; and a rigorous diſcipline muſt prevent them from requiring more than the country and circumſtances could allow. On the routes where troops were to march, ſufficient bread might certainly be provided, in the large towns, on a ſhort notice. Should this not be the caſe, commanding officers were, themſelves, to obviate the difficulty in the beſt general mode they could, and not to permit individuals to treſpaſs or commit outrages. Whether the troops ſhould be cantoned, or encamped, a commiſſary was to attend each brigade, to regulate, and provide for the march, and to whom every neceſſary aſſiſtance was to be given. If there ſhould be no commiſſary or aſſiſtant quarter-maſter, and the preſſure ſhould be ſuch, that proviſion of ſtraw, forage, or bread, muſt be had on the ſpot, the commanding officer was to appoint one or more intelligent officers to act as commiſſaries, and aſſiſtant quarter-maſters for the time, who ſhould go forward with proper aſſiſtance, call upon the magiſtrate or magiſtrates of the neighbourhood, and, repreſenting the neceſſity of the caſe, as the only means of preſerving property, and the regularity of the troops, induce them to take ſuch immediate meaſures, and give ſuch orders, as would, on the ſpot, produce the neceſſary ſupplies: for all which the commanding officers of each regiment would give full and diſtinct acknowledgments (ſigned alſo by the commiſſary or aſſiſtant quarter-maſter) in writing, ſpecifying in words the quantities of each article received, the number of perſons and horſes thereby provided for, and for what time. Regiſters of every receipt, ſo granted, were to be kept by commanding officers, as neceſſary checks if called on. And the receipts themſelves were to be afterwards collected, and diſcharged

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charged by the commissary general, at the fair rates of the country. The troops were to encamp on the commons, wherever there were such. Otherwise, they were ordered to encamp on such grass fields, as should be most convenient for their march, and to which they could do the least damage. But, if unavoidable damage should be done, the commanding officer of the encamping corps was to grant a certificate of the nature and amount."

Thus, in the inland arrangements, the government united the safety of the public with justice to individuals.

On the sea coast, all along the channel, from the Nore to Falmouth, a system of night signals was employed to announce any approach of danger. Frigates and gun-boats were stationed at proper places near the British shore. The return of the Baltic fleet, while it added to the amount of our disposeable naval force, inspired, if possible, into our seamen and marines, still higher sentiments of courage, honour, and glory. Such was the immensity of our navy, that our fleets, squadrons, and cruizers, blocked up the enemy in their principal ports, and watched their flotillas of gun-boats, while they endeavoured, with various success, to skulk close to the shore, from one place to another, and annoyed, and quashed their trade in every quarter of the world. A chain of English vessels of war stretched along the whole extent of the French coast on the channel, generally about two or three miles from land. Frigates were stationed behind the promontories, for intercepting any vessels, that should venture to put to sea, not knowing their danger. Sometimes our frigates, and other lighter vessels, would dash in, and cut out the enemies ships from their creeks and harbours. The Dutch fleet, and the preparations in the adjacent ports of the enemy, were watched, and held in check by squadrons under the command of the admirals Dickson and Greaves. That under Dickson, who had the chief command of both, amounted to twelve sail of the line, besides frigates. That under Greaves, to five or six sail of the line, besides other vessels. The harbour of Toulon was watched, and the neighbouring coasts scoured by sir John Borlase Warren. Admiral Cornwallis, with fourteen sail of three-deckers, and one 80 gun ship, besides frigates, and other armed vessels, cruized off Brest. A squadron of eight sail of seventy-fours, and two of 84, besides frigates, cutters, and gun-boats, under rear-admiral sir James Saumarez blockaded Cadiz.

So great, at this time, the summer of 1801, was the immense strength of the navy of England; that she had a fleet in the Indian ocean; a fleet in the Red Sea; a fleet at the mouth of the Nile; two fleets in or near the Mediterranean; a small fleet in the Baltic; a fleet in the West Indies; detached cruizers and convoy ships in every direction; and a channel fleet: while a flotilla of vessels of different descriptions, under the command of lord Nelson, who was invested with the supreme command of maritime affairs from the Land's End to Yarmouth, guarded the British shores, and struck terror into those of France.

Such was, in general, the disposition of our fleets, in the months of February, March, April, May,

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June, and July, 1801, though, on so variable an element, and amidst such complicated and shifting scenes, they underwent, of course, many variations. The squadron under sir Robert Calder, missing the tract of Gantheaume, went in quest of him to the West Indies. It was supposed by our government that it had gone thither, whether for re-establishing subordination to the French government in St. Domingo, and Guadaloupe, or attacking Jamaica; though, it would seem, that its real destination, the relief of the French colony in Egypt, the favourite project of Buonaparte, might have well appeared to be the more reasonable conjecture. Our government was, in like manner, held long in suspense whether the grand expedition, under the command of Buonaparte, in person, in 1798, was destined against Egypt, or the East or West Indies.

When the real route of Gantheaume was known, he was followed by the squadron under sir John Borlase Warren, who sought him with no better success! He eluded, likewise, the vigilance of Lord Keith's fleet and cruizers, as well as those of sir Richard Bickerton. Though the object of his voyage was fully known, he sailed about the Mediterranean for six months, without either falling into the hands of our squadrons, or of being often, or that for certain, heard of. Some times he was reported to have accomplished the object of his voyage, by landing in Egypt, and at others, that he had landed the troops he carried, in Barca, on the coast of Barbary, between Egypt and Tripoli. These reports, and a thousand others as ill founded, were greedily swallowed by the French, and made use of by their government for keeping up their spirits. The English and other nations, and even at last the French, when their curiosity about his fate began to be blunted by the lapse of time, made a joke of the matter, and said that he must have gone to some unknown, or unfrequented seas, on a voyage of discovery. At last he returned to Toulon, in July, without effecting any thing besides throwing the small force into Alexandria, already mentioned. In his voyage towards Egypt, he had the good fortune to fall in with, and to take three English vessels. Two of them were frigates; the other, a cutter of 12 guns, carrying home dispatches from lord Keith. The causes of his failure were, the strength and the vigilance of our squadrons, boisterous weather, as he alleged, and the hostile dispositions manifested by the nations of both Egypt and Barbary. In his return, he fell in with and captured the Swiftsure, one of our seventy-four gun ships of war. Captain Hollowell, the commander, crowding all his sail, attempted to escape or fight his way through the whole French fleet. The French ships, from their great superiority in sailing, closed with him, one after another, very fast; so that he was engaged, at once, with three ships of the line and a frigate. After an action of one hour and seven minutes, he was forced to give up the unequal contest. The Swiftsure, at the commencement of the action, was 86 men short of her compliment, which was 700, and had 59 sick. Being, after the engagement, little better than a wreck, she was taken into tow. The next day, carpenters and seamen, from all the ships, were sent on board to repair her damages, and

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and soldiers to complete her number to 700. With all their exertions, and the advantage of smooth water, it was six days before they were able to make sail. The capture of the Swiftsure was celebrated by all the French journals as a grand achievement.

Nearly about the same time another of our ships of the line fell into the hands of a French squadron, under admiral Linois, on the Spanish coast, near Cadiz. This squadron, consisting of two ships, carrying each 80 guns, one carrying 74 guns, and a frigate, besides cutters, on the 4th of July lay at anchor off Algeziras.* Rear-admiral sir James Saumarez informed of this, with the Cæsar, of 84 guns; the Pompey, of 84; the Spencer, of 84; the Audacious, of 74; the Hannibal, of 74; a frigate carrying 40 guns; and a lugger of 16, went in quest of them. Having stood through the straits, from the Mediterranean, and opened Cabareta Point, he found that the ships lay at a considerable distance from the batteries on shore. Encouraged by this circumstance, and by a leading wind, he resolved to attack them.

At eight o'clock in the morning of the 5th, the English squadron, with springs on their cables, advanced to the French ships, in order to come to the closest action possible. Captain Hood, in the Venerable, led the squadron with his accustomed gallantry; but, from the failing of the wind, was obliged to cast anchor. Captain Stirling anchored opposite the inner ship of the enemy, and brought the Pompey to action in the most spirited manner. Captain Darby of the Spencer, and captain Ferris of the Hannibal, from light winds were prevented, for a considerable time, from coming into action. At length the Hannibal getting a breeze, captain Ferris had the most favourable prospect of getting along-side of one of the enemy's ships, when the Hannibal unfortunately ran aground. Sir James Saumarez, with his own ship, the Cæsar, and the Audacious, made every possible effort to run between the Hannibal and the French batteries and squadron, to cover, and to enable her to extricate herself from the difficulty into which she had fallen; but the wind did not favour this bold manœuvre: and being, at that critical time, only three cables length from one of the enemy's batteries, he was under the necessity of making sail, leaving the Hannibal, which, of course, struck her flag. The admiral, in his dispatches to government, makes the following animated and interesting appeal in behalf of the courage of his squadron: "My thanks are particularly due to all the captains, officers, and men, under my orders; and although their endeavours have not been crowned with success, I trust that the thousands of spectators, from his majesty's garrison (of Gibraltar), and also the surrounding coast, will do justice to their valour and intrepidity, which was not to be checked by the fire from the numerous

* There is no port in Spain where there is so great a number of gun-boats, and light-armed vessels kept, as in that of Algeziras; which, during the war, on account of its proximity to Gibraltar, was a kind of depôt for them. It was there, that, in the course of the last war, the floating batteries, fire-ships, and gun-boats, were built for the memorable siege of Gibraltar; and it yet contained such portions of that vast armada, as escaped the devouring fury of the flames.

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batteries, however formidable, that ſurrounds Algeziras."—The immediate circumſtances that unavoidably led to the loſs of the Hannibal, are thus briefly related by captain Ferris, in a letter to the admiral, dated at Algeziras, July 7. "From the number of batteries, ſhips, and gun-boats, we had to encounter, our guns got ſoon knocked up; and I found it was impoſſible to do any thing either for the preſervation of the ſhip, or for the good of the ſervice, our boats, ſails, rigging, and ſprings, being all ſhot away; and having ſo many killed and wounded, which will appear by the annexed liſt, I thought it prudent to ſtrike, and thereby preſerve the lives of the brave men that remained.—Notwithſtanding the unfortunate iſſue, I have the ſatisfaction to ſay, that every order was obſerved and carried into execution with the promptitude and alacrity becoming Britiſh officers and ſeamen."—The number of killed and wounded, in the Hannibal, alluded to by captain Ferris, was 143. The total of killed, wounded, and miſſing, in our ſquadron, was 375.

According to the Spaniſh accounts of this engagement, publiſhed in the Madrid Gazette, there was another Engliſh ſhip, which, being greatly diſabled, ſtruck her colours before the Hannibal; but, that the ſhip which had ſtruck firſt, was towed off by a great number of gun-boats, and other veſſels, ſent out from Gibraltar. According to the ſame accounts, the loſs of the French, in killed and wounded, amounted to not fewer than 800. The Madrid Gazette claimed the diſcomfiture and ſurrender of the Hannibal, as an honour due to one of the batteries at Algeziras, called St. James's. The batteries of *St. James's* and *Green Iſland* had ſlackened their fire, and were ready to be attacked, and fall into the hands of detachments from the Britiſh ſhips, when they were ſaved by parties of troops on board the French ſhips, landed in order to arm the batteries, under the command of brigadier-general Devaux. Two of the French ſhips, being the largeſt, were ſtranded, the other was diſabled from ſervice. In the number of the ſlain, on the ſide of the French, were the captains of the two eighty-gun ſhips, the *Formidable* and *Indomptable*.

The Spaniſh troops were diſplaced from the batteries by the French; who did them the diſhonour of confeſſing that they did not think the poſts ſafe in their hands. The French, both in the ſhips and on ſhore, are allowed, on all hands, to have acquitted themſelves with very great coolneſs and courage. It was a hard and deſperate engagement.—If the Engliſh had greatly the advantage in the number of ſhips, that advantage was counterbalanced to the enemy by the batteries on ſhore, and by the failing of that favourable wind, on the ſtrength of which ſir J. Saumarez had hazarded one of the moſt daring attacks that was ever made, in a naval war, in any country.

If the capture of the Swiftſure, by a whole ſquadron, was a matter of triumph, it was not ſurpriſing that the French conſidered the victory at Algeziras as the ſummit of naval glory. It was announced, by an official note to all the theatres of Paris, that ſix Engliſh ſhips of the line had been either taken, or beaten back into the harbour of Gibraltar, by three French ſhips. The ſame news

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news was circulated by the telegraphs throughout the whole of the French empire: not a word of the batteries on shore. The 5th of July was called the *naval Maringo*. The destruction of the modern *Carthage* was predicted, in an epigram greatly admired in Paris, because it had lost its *Hannibal*. From the result of the engagement at Algeziras, the French nation, at large, inferred, without the smallest doubt, that their navy would soon be enabled, with proper attention, to contest the empire of the seas. "Honour and glory, exclaims one of their journalists to the brave Linois, and the seamen who fought under him on the 5th of July! may an action so memorable form the epoch of the resurrection of the French navy, and prove to Europe, that it is not true that our navy is, from the nature and force of circumstances, destined to be inferior to that of England! Whence is it possible that the adage can have arisen, repeated sometimes even by Frenchmen, *that on land we are superior to the English, but that we must admit all their advantages by sea?*—Most certainly we must admit them, on all occasions, when our marine, neglected and forgotten, receives neither encouragement nor pay, when no movement is seen in our ports, and our sailors are left in a state of humiliating and fatal inactivity. It was by actual service that our armies learnt to combat. They had courage, and experience gave them skill. The same result would infallibly take place, if, commencing with the elements of our marine, the same care and the same solicitude were extended for its restoration.—To infer, from the great advantage given to our enemies, by a total neglect, to place our navy on a respectable footing, as well as our army, that this advantage is, in a manner, the natural inheritance of the English, and to form this conclusion into a kind of prejudice, is a proceeding the most unjust and absurd.—England is an island, and necessity makes the English complete seamen; but, though France is not an island, has she not numerous ports in the channel, and on the coasts of the ocean and Mediterranean? Does any one think that it is on board the packet-boats, between Dover and Calais, that English seamen are formed? And can our French mariners go to both the Indies, the seas of the North, and the Pacific and Southern Oceans, by the stage-coach? These few observations shew how easily the most absurd opinion may obtain circulation. Happily the present government well know it. It has not been discouraged by obstacles of any kind. It now reaps the fruits of its providence, patience, and zeal. The great example, which has just been exhibited, will add to the means which it developes. It will encourage our seamen, shew our enemies what we can do, and prepare new triumphs."

It rarely happens, indeed, it does not seem to be in human nature, that men should form an accurate and candid judgement concerning each others merits and character, independently of all accidents of fortune, whether prosperous or adverse. The judgement may labour, by a very up-hill operation, to come to, and to form such a decision, for a time; but the imagination is sure, sooner or later, to deface the work of the understanding, by the brilliant colours of a prosperous, or the gloomy shades of an unfortunate issue.

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ſue. While the French, in the eſtimate they made of their own glory in the naval engagement at Algeziras, did not make a juſt account of the advantages they enjoyed, and the formidable obſtacles and accidents encountered by ſir J. Saumarez; the Engliſh nation, on whom, after defeat, all theſe made their full impreſſion, could not, for a ſhort time, refrain from accuſing the admiral of imprudence. His gallantry was acknowledged. The bravery of his officers and ſeamen were alſo acknowledged; but the attack on the French ſhips, moored ſo near the gun-boats and batteries at Algeziras, was conſidered as imprudent. The moſt ſkilful naval commanders did not make this charge. The plan they admitted to be as well conceived as it was courageous. It might have been executed with ſucceſs and glory, but for the failing of the wind, and the ſtop that was put to the courſe of the Venerable. In the general eſtimation, however, the admiral's courage was carried to the full length of temerity: and even in the judgement of the moſt experienced ſeamen, the wiſdom of his deſign, was probably ſomewhat diminiſhed, by the failure in the execution.

Such was the temper and tone of the public mind in France and England, when intelligence was received of a ſecond action fought by the ſquadron under ſir J. Saumarez, in which he obtained a victory, not inferior to any of the moſt brilliant exploits that adorn our naval annals. The three French line of battle-ſhips, diſabled in the action of the 5th of Auguſt, were, on the 8th, reinforced by a ſquadron of five Spaniſh line of battle-ſhips, under the command of don Juan de Moreno, the ſame Moreno, who commanded the Spaniſh gun-boats, in 1782, in the attack on Gibraltar, and a French ſhip of 74 guns, wearing a broad pendant, beſides three frigates, and an incredible number of gun-boats and other veſſels. They got under ſail on the morning of the 12th, together with the Engliſh ſhip, the Hannibal, which they had ſucceeded in moving off the ſhoal on which ſhe had ſtruck. Sir J. Saumarez almoſt deſpaired of getting a ſufficient force in readineſs to oppoſe to ſuch numbers; but through the greateſt exertions of the officers and men, the Cæſar, which was the admiral's ſhip, as already mentioned, was in readineſs to warp out of the mole of Gibraltar, alſo in the morning of the 12th; and, immediately after the whole ſquadron got under weigh, except the Pompey, which ſhip had not had time to get in her maſts. The Engliſh admiral determined, if poſſible, to obſtruct the paſſage of ſo powerful a force, as that of the enemy, to Cadiz. Late in the evening, he obſerved the combined ſquadron to have cleared Cabareta Point, and, at eight, he bore up to ſtand after them. His majeſty's ſhip, the Superb, a ſeventy-four, being ſtationed a-head of the Cæſar, he directed captain Keats, to make ſail, and attack the ſternmoſt ſhips in the enemy's rear, and to uſe his endeavours to keep in ſhore of them. At eleven, the Superb opened her fire cloſe to the enemy's ſhips, and, on the Cæſar's coming up, and preparing to engage a three-decker, that had hauled her wind, ſhe was perceived to have taken fire, and the flames having communicated to a ſhip to the leeward of her, both were ſoon in a blaze, and preſented a moſt

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a moſt awful ſight. As there was no poſſibility of offering the leaſt aſſiſtance to the enemy, in ſo diſtreſſing a ſituation, the Cæſar paſſed on to cloſe with the ſhip, engaged by the Superb; but, before the Cæſar could come up, that ſhip, the St. Antonio, of 74 guns, and 730 men, was completely ſilenced, and hauled down her colours. The Venerable and Spencer having, at this inſtant, come up, the Engliſh admiral bore after the enemy, who were carrying a preſs of ſail, and ſtanding out of the ſtraits; but loſt ſight of them during the night. It blew exceſſively hard till daylight; and, in the morning, the only ſhips in company were the Venerable and Thames, a-head of the Cæſar, and one of the French ſhips at ſome diſtance from them, ſtanding towards the ſhoals of Conil, beſides the Spencer aſtern, coming up. All our ſhips immediately made ſail with a freſh breeze, but, as they approached, the wind ſuddenly failed, and the Venerable alone was able to bring the French ſhip to action, which captain Hood did in the moſt gallant manner; and had nearly ſilenced her, when his mainmaſt, which had been before wounded, was unfortunately ſhot away, and thus the enemy's ſhip was enabled to get off, without any poſſibility of following her.

The particular circumſtances of the Superb's ſervices, communicated to ſir J. Saumarez, at his requeſt, by the captain, were theſe: captain Keats, in conſequence of the admiral's directions to make ſail up to and engage the ſternmoſt of the enemy's ſhips, at half-paſt eleven found himſelf abreaſt of a Spaniſh three-decked ſhip, on which he opened his fire at not more than three cables length, which produced good effect not only in that ſhip, but in other two, which lay nearly in a line abreaſt of her: all which ſhips ſoon began firing on each other, and at times on the Superb. The three-decker was the Royal Charles, carrying 112 guns. In about a quarter of an hour, he perceived the ſhip he was engaging, and which had loſt her foretopmaſt, to be on fire. On this, he inſtantly ceaſed to moleſt her, and proceeded on to the ſhip next at hand, the St. Antonio, abovementioned, under French colours, and manned nearly, in equal proportions, with French and Spaniſh ſeamen, and which, after ſome action, the chief being wounded, ſtruck her colours. From the very few ſurvivors of the ſhips that caught fire, and blew up, and who, in an open boat, reached the Superb, at the time ſhe was taking poſſeſſion of the St. Antonio, captain Keats learned, that, in the confuſion of the action, the St. Hermenegildo, alſo 112 guns, miſtaking, in a dark night, the Royal Charles for an enemy, ran on board her, and ſhared her melancholy fate.—The other Spaniſh ſhips, were the St. Ferdinando, of 94 guns; the Argonaut, of 80; and the Wanton, a lugger of 12 guns.

The eſcape of the French ſhip, the Formidable, from the Venerable, was repreſented as a great naval victory, and a ſignal inſtance of the reviving glory of the French marine. Troude, the officer who commanded the Formidable, which was the admiral's ſhip, while his flag was hoiſted on board a frigate, ſaid, that he was attacked by no leſs than three Engliſh ſhips of the line, and a frigate: all of which he obliged, by well-pointed broadſides, to ſheer off. They left him, he ſaid,

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in poſſeſſion of the field of battle, where he expected they would renew the engagement; but, as they judged it prudent to retire, and as he was not in a ſituation that admitted of his purſuing them, captain Troude determined to continue his route to Cadiz, where he arrived, July 13, about two o'clock in the afternoon.—Here alſo the other crippled remains of the combined ſquadrons found ſhelter. Sir J. Saumarez went with his ſquadron to refit at Gibraltar: from whence, in a few weeks, he returned to blockade the enemy in Cadiz. Sir J. Saumarez was honoured by his majeſty with the order of the Bath.

CHAP.

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CHAP. XV.

Operations of the French at Land, as uſual, more ſucceſsful than thoſe at Sea.—Combined Attack on Portugal, concerted between France and Spain, in which the Concurrence of Spain is not ſincere, but intended as a Meaſure for the Prevention of greater Miſchief.—Portugal deſerted by England.—Mutual Declarations of War between Spain and Portugal.—Sham War; and Peace between Portugal and Spain.—The Preliminaries of that Pacification refuſed to be acceded to by the French Government.—French Army advances through the Pyranees to the Portugueſe Frontier, and ſits down before Almeida.—The Portugueſe Government alarmed, prepare ſeriouſly for ſelf-defence, but unable to raiſe an effective Army of ſufficient Strength.—The Portugueſe Iſland of Maderia occupied by the Engliſh.—Pacification between France and Portugal.

THE operations of the enemy were, as uſual, more ſucceſsful at land than at ſea: in the interior of the great peninſula of Spain and Portugal, than on the ſhores.

The connection between Great Britain and Portugal had been of ſo long ſtanding, ſo intimate, and of ſo great mutual advantage, eſpecially to Great Britain, that Portugal was conſidered and ſpoken of by the French, and men of their faction in Spain, as being, in fact, as a colony in the hands of England. It was, in truth, of greater value to this country than any of her foreign ſettlements, India alone excepted. An attack on Portugal, therefore, naturally occurred to the French government as a mode in which they might ſeverely wound Great Britain, and induce her, for the ſafety of that kingdom, to make, in a general pacification, important conceſſions to France. The Portugueſe, our old and faithful allies, were not more diſpoſed to continue in habits of cloſe intercourſe and friendſhip, than proud and confident in the protection of the Engliſh. If the Engliſh government would have ſupplied them with an army, as well as with a navy, the general voice of the court and nation, as in the war terminating in 1763, would have cheerfully embarked the fortune and fate of Portugal with that of Britain. Our miniſters appeared, for ſome time, to have embraced the reſolution of defending Portugal, and ſo late as October, 1801. The cabinet of Spain, unwilling to be dragged by the French into a conteſt with a kingdom, with which it was ſo nearly connected by the ties of blood, and which was deſtined, one day to return within the boſom of the Spaniſh

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Spanish monarchy, offered itself as a mediator between Portugal and France. To this the British cabinet would not consent; but attempted to rouse the Portuguese to war, with the promise of military succours, provided that a person, recommended by Great Britain, should be employed to fill the office of commander-in-chief of the forces in Portugal, instead of the actual commander-in-chief, who, from age, was not capable of acting with a sufficient degree of judgement for his country. The court of Lisbon did not take this advice. They agreed, however, that, if this country would furnish an army of 25,000, the British ministry might then appoint a minister. To this our ministry would not accede; and determined to carry the force destined for the defence of Portugal to the relief of Egypt.* Such was the general account of affairs given by a noble secretary of state. The demand of the court of Lisbon was certainly not unreasonable. A pretence only seems to have been sought for sacrificing Portugal to a superior concern, for the expulsion of the French from Egypt. A few British regiments, however, were left in Portugal; and a subsidy was granted by Britain to her Catholic majesty, of 300,000*l.*: an aid, as was observed, as justly as frequently, both in and out of parliament, fitted only to serve as a bribe, or to make up a bribe, for the purchase of a temporary peace to Buonaparte.

The court of Madrid, yielding to the solicitations and threats of their terrible allies, declared war against Portugal, on the 3d of March, 1801. The principal grounds of this measure were declared to be these: that the court of Lisbon had refused to ratify a peace with France, signed by its plenipotentiary in 1797, by which Portugal agreed to separate itself from England, and, as a pledge of its fidelity, to suffer its ports to be garrisoned by Spanish troops; that all the attempts of his Catholic majesty to detach Portugal from his enemy, England, and to induce her to make peace with his ally, France, had proved ineffectual; that, by her sailors, and the protection afforded in her ports to the fleets of England, she had assisted the fleets of this country in the exercise of their hostility against France and Spain; that she had furnished the English with provisions, and taken part with them in all their acts of aggression, even to that as to insult the French in the port of Carthagena.—"What conduct," the king of Spain put the question, "had he to observe in the midst of so many outrages? The French republic, justly irritated against Portugal, was desirous of inflicting a just vengeance upon her, and its victorious arms would long since have spread desolation through its provinces, if his fraternal affection for the most faithful queen, and her august children, had not suspended the blow with which it was threatened by his ally, the republic.—From his paternal care for those provinces he had been induced to forget all preceding, and all fresh grievances, which he had to complain of, and to endeavour to divert the

* Lord Hawkesbury's speech in the house of commons, in the debate on the definitive treaty, Monday, May 13, 1802.

successes

ſucceſſes of the French armies, and to obtain an advantageous peace. He ſtrongly repreſented to the court of Portugal the dangers to which it expoſed itſelf. He had employed the moſt engaging language of paternal tenderneſs and friendſhip, to incline them to a wiſe determination —The obſtinacy of Portugal had obliged him, at laſt, to uſe a harſher language."

It was not, however, till the 26th of April, that a proclamation of war, or rather of defence, was iſſued by the Portugueſe government. After enumerating many, and ſome recent, good offices of Portugal to Spain, they complained that the court of Madrid, inſtead of evincing ſentiments of gratitude, for the generous conduct of Portugal, had, on the contrary, by terminating hoſtilities with France, not only endangered the nation which had aſſiſted it, but declared war againſt the Portugueſe, for having remained faithful to their treaſies. It ſet up a pretext, that treaties contracted in the ſight of God and man might be ſuddenly broken, and that their auguſt prince and the nation ſhould be guilty of perjury. A nation, which could reſiſt the Romans, conquer Aſia, make great diſcoveries by ſea, ſhake off a foreign ſceptre, and recover and maintain her independence, ſhould not that nation, at preſent, recal to mind the honourable annals of her hiſtory?—"People of Portugal! we ſtill preſerve the courage and ſentiments tranſmitted by our anceſtors. Juſtice is on our ſide; and the true God, favourable to our cauſe, will puniſh, by our arms, the injuſtice of our adverſaries."

Never were mutual declarations of war made with leſs acrimony, or a ſincerer deſire of coming ſpeedily to terms of peace. The ſame ſpirit of moderation, forbearance, and goodwill, appeared in the conduct of the war, that was diſplayed, on both ſides, in its proclamation. Preparations, or a ſhew of preparations, were made by the Portugueſe government for a war, profeſſed to be merely defenſive. New levies were made in all places, and among all ranks, the eccleſiaſtics, and men above ſixty, alone excepted. None were exempted capable of bearing arms, or, as the Portugueſe have it, "capable of ſhewing a beard." A force was raiſed, and ſet in motion, of regulars and irregulars; but the numbers we have not been able to aſcertain with any tolerable degree of exactneſs. The prince of Brazils attended the army in perſon. To aſſiſt in carrying on the war, government borrowed the plate of the churches, which was depoſited as a pledge, in aid of the public faith, for ſums advanced, in the hands of individuals; and an augmentation was made, of one-third part, to the daily pay of the ſoldiers. Every thing, in ſhort, wore the appearance of a neceſſary defence againſt a ſerious and alarming invaſion.

The province of Alentejo, the largeſt, the moſt fertile, and the beſt cultivated of the ſix into which Portugal is divided, is 200 miles long, and eighty broad. It is extended from the confines of Spain to the ſea. It is divided into two grand diſtricts, by the Tagus and the Guadiana. The former of theſe rivers bounds it on the north, and ſeparates it from Eſtramadura; and the latter entering Portugal, near Badajoz, and flowing through its

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southern parts, falls into the Gulf of Cadiz, at Ayamonte; and there forms the boundary between Portugal and Spain. Both these rivers presented to the military eye, natural inlets into Portugal. That of the Tagus, on the right bank, was the most natural and direct to the main force of the kingdom, Lisbon and Oporto. But the Spaniards proceeded by that of the Guadiana; though the Tagus, on the right of which Oporto and Lisbon are situated, furnished with an army to oppose the passage, cannot be crossed from the south; and that an army, which enters Alentejo, cannot extend its hostilities beyond that province, or, at most, to Algarva.—If the Spaniards had been at liberty to choose what route they pleased, the choice they made might easily be accounted for: but it is probable that the plan of invading Portugal was concerted, or rather dictated, by Buonaparte. While the Spaniards were to penetrate into Alentejo, the French auxiliaries were to act on the other side of the Tagus, and march to Oporto* and Lisbon.

The Spanish army, from 30 to 40,000, under the command of the Prince of Peace, from different points, entered Alentejo on the 20th of May.—It would be idle, and, after the campaigns and engagements in this work, recently described, might well appear uninteresting and tiresome to give a particular account of a campaign, where all was rapid progress on the one part, and precipitate retreat, with very little resistance, on the other. By the 6th of June, the Spaniards had reduced Elvas, Campo-Major, Arronches, Fior de Rosa, Estrencoz, and, in a word, all the strong places and all the magazines of Alentejo. A great number of prisoners, with eleven standards, and driven the Portuguese beyond the Tagus. On that day, the 6th of June, preliminaries of peace were signed between Portugal and Spain, at Badajoz: the principal conditions of which were, that the town, fortress, and province of Olivenza, were ceded to Spain, and the ports of Portugal shut against the English. This pacification was ratified on June 16, but not proclaimed by Portugal, till the 20th of July. It was deemed prudent not to publish the treaty of Badajoz till the Portuguese possessions in South America, by a reinforcement of French troops, should be secured from invasion on the part of England. In the Portuguese proclamation, not a word of France was mentioned.

From the whole aspect of this business, between Spain and Portugal, there cannot be a doubt that the courts of Madrid and Lisbon maintained a secret understanding with each other. The Spaniards forbore the attack on the Portuguese, as long as possible. They had no effective army, or rather, perhaps, they chose to have none. The French government, however, urged them to raise one, which they promised to support with troops from France. A French army of observation had been established for some time near Bourdeaux, and detachments of this had begun to

* Next to Lisbon, the richest and most commercial town in the kingdom. It has a naval arsenal.

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ſle off, by Bayonne, toward the Spaniſh frontier. The French general, St. Cyr, was, at the ſame time, ſent to Madrid, to be with the Spaniſh general, and to concert with him all the operations of the war. Spain, therefore, with an apparent deſire to gratify the wiſhes of her republican ally, but, in reality, to prevent a greater miſchief, commenced the aggreſſion. She took the field with an army haſtily collected, and without a ſufficiency of either ſtores or proviſions. An army of the ſame complexion, and equally devoid of energy, was ſent to oppoſe her. An attempt was made by marches, and a little ſkirmiſhing, in which not more than 4 or 500 were engaged on both ſides, to deceive the republicans into a belief, that both parties were ſeriouſly at war. The French haſtened to forward and crown the victorious career of their ally. But the moment they approached to the ſcene of action, terms were propoſed by the Portugueſe court, acceded to by that of Spain, and thus all diſputes between theſe kindred powers were amicably ſettled.

The ſituation of Portugal, ſhut up between the prevailing power and influence of the French by land, and that of the Engliſh at ſea, was extremely hard, and bore a near reſemblance to that of the Danes, menaced on the one hand by the Engliſh, during the formation of the late northern coalition, and on the other by Ruſſia. Mr. Friar, the Engliſh envoy at Liſbon, ſent a ſtrong note to the Portugueſe miniſter, remonſtrating againſt the concluſion of peace, till his court ſhould be conſulted.

At this haughty conduct, the Portugueſe cabinet was greatly hurt, as Portugal had to complain of the conduct of Great Britain. Immediately after Mr. Friar had preſented this note, he wrote another to Mr. Arbuthnot, the Engliſh conſul, deſiring him to intimate to the Britiſh merchants to hold themſelves in readineſs to depart at a moment's notice. But the Engliſh were invited to remain, with aſſurance of protection, by the prince regent of Portugal.

By a convention entered into between France and Spain, at Madrid, peace was not to be concluded between theſe parties on the one hand, and Portugal on the other, unleſs, among other conditions, certain places in Portugal ſhould be given to be occupied by French troops, until the eſtabliſhment of a general peace in Europe. When, therefore, the firſt conſul of France was invited to accede to the preliminaries of the peace of Badajoz, he refuſed his concurrence. He repreſented that it was contrary to the convention of Madrid, and to the general policy and intereſt of the allies. And that the immediate conſequence of this treaty to his Catholic majeſty, if he ſhould ratify it, ſeparately, would be the loſs of Trinidad; which muſt be ceded, as a condition of peace with the Britiſh nation, if the occupation by French troops, of ſome quarter, or ſome poſts in Portugal, ſhould not enable the French government to offer, to the cabinet of London, an option, which it might prefer even to the poſſeſſion of the Spaniſh iſland. But the court of Liſbon, having ratified the treaty of Badajoz, ſeparately, the French government proceeded in its determina-

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tion of invading Portugal. A French army, 50,000 ſtrong, under general Leclerc, provided with a numerous train of artillery, having traverſed the Pyrenees, entered Portugal from Salamanca, on the 28th of June, inveſted the town and fortreſs of Almeida, and, from that poſition, menaced both Oporto and Liſbon. —It was the policy of Great Britain to counterbalance the conqueſts made by the common enemy on her allies, by ſeizing their tranſmarine dependencies. While the French threatened the ſubjugation of Portugal, a ſquadron, with troops, was ſent out by the Britiſh government for taking into our protection and poſſeſſion, the iſland of Madeira. It arrived on the 23d of July, at the place of its deſtination. Early on the 24th, a negotiation was begun, and before it was dark, half the force was landed and encamped. On the 25th, the remainder was landed: and colonel Clinton, who commanded the expedition, having made proper repreſentations, and ſatisfied the governor of the friendly intentions of the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, was put in poſſeſſion of the two forts which command the bay of Funchal, the capital of the iſland.

Edicts were again iſſued by the Portugueſe government, for military conſcriptions. Large bounties were offered to ſeamen, for manning ſix ſhips of the line intended to join the Engliſh fleet at Cadiz. The ſubſidy from England of 500,000*l.* which arrived early in July, in an Engliſh frigate, quickened the exertions of the Portugueſe. Succours in men likewiſe were ſolicited from England, and fondly, though vainly, expected. The men were at work in the arſenals of Liſbon and Oporto day and night. The greateſt activity prevailed in every branch of the war department. Portugal was ſeriouſly prepared to defend herſelf.

The Portugueſe army, however, notwithſtanding all the requiſitions, and all the bounties which were offered to landſmen, as well as ſailors, did not amount to more than from 20 to 25,000 men, including three regiments of loyal French emigrants, and ſome corps of Engliſh cavalry. Its head quarters were fixed in the ſtrong poſt of Abrantes, on the Tagus, in Eſtramadura. The commander-in-chief was the duke of Alſoens.

The duke, in the beginning of July, quitting Abrantes, and leaving a ſtrong corps there, under the command of general Forbes,* proceeded with the main army, to occupy ſuch poſition as might enable him to check the farther irruptions of the French. But, in the mean time, while the weak, and but ill-provided Portugueſe army were thus employed, and the French frowned farther invaſion and conqueſt from Almeida, a negotiation was ſet on foot for peace: which was finally concluded at Madrid, on the 29th of September. By this treaty, neither Olivenza, nor any other portion of the Portugueſe territory, was given to Spain. But the intereſts of France were conſulted in commer-

* A Scotchman, who had been long in the ſervice of Portugal. This is the colonel Forbes who called out the famous John Wilkes, at Paris, for having ſo much abuſed the colonel's countrymen, in one of the numbers of the North Briton.

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cial regulations, and in the extension, as well as compactneſs of the French Guiana.* The fate of Portugal, with its dependencies, it was evident, was to turn on the conditions of peace between France and England. The pacification with Portugal was ſigned only two days before the ſigning of the preliminaries of peace between France and England; which peace was accelerated by the quickened preparations and attempts of France to invade Great Britain and Ireland, and the futility of all ſuch attempts proved to the conviction of France, and all the world.

* See State Papers.

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CHAP. XVI.

Invasion of Britain in flat-bottomed Boats.—By whom first projected.—The Policy of Buonaparte in his Menaces of Invasion.—To which his boasted Preparations were inadequate.—Gallant Exploits of British Gun-boats and Cruizers.—French Ports blockaded.—And Coasts insulted.—Yet French Vessels of War steal from one Place to another, alongshore.—Their great Place of Rendezvous, Boulogne.—The French and English on the opposite Sides of the Channel keep each other on the Alert.—The Tide of War turned by the English from offensive to defensive.—French Preparation for Self-defence.—The War between France and Britain assumes an Aspect extremely interesting.—The opposite Preparations of War seen from the opposite Coasts.—The Harbour of Boulogne described.—French Encampments and Fortifications.—Bombardment of the Vessels in the Harbour of Boulogne.—Its Effects.—Second Attack on Boulogne.—Singular Precautions of the French for defending, and securing their Vessels from being carried off by the English.—Plan of the Attack.—Circumstances that involved its Miscarriage.—Defeat and Disaster.—Lord Nelson, leaving a sufficient Force before Boulogne, returns to Deal.—Humane Attentions of Lord Nelson to the wounded Sailors.

THE plan of a descent on Britain in flat bottomed boats, from Boulogne, was first proposed by the famous Lally, in 1744. It was for a moment adopted by the French ministry, but quickly abandoned, as impracticable. There had not arisen any circumstances in the British army, or in the character of the British nation, and certes not in the navy, that presented greater facilities of invasion, in the course of the last fifty years, than could be hoped for at any former period. Nor was the present ruler of France so devoid of prudence, or desperate in fortune, as to hazard so extravagant and frantic a project. At the same time, therefore, that the necessity of vigilance, and preparation for defence was allowed on all hands, the most reflecting and judicious part of the British nation were fully persuaded that no descent of any consequence would be attempted, unless it should be invited by too great carelessness, or contempt of the enemy. The policy of Buonaparte was two fold: to divide and distract, and to exhaust the resources of the British government, as above stated, and at the same time to occupy, and keep in exercise, a very numerous army. This army, he could not, in prudence or with safety, either to the republic, as it was still called, or to himself, permit to languish in absolute

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ſolute idleneſs, or to indulge the reſtleſs genius of Frenchmen, in liſtening to various ſchemes of endleſs innovation. The ſtate of the continent was ſtill critical and unſettled. The indemnities of Germany were yet to be fixed; the clamours diſcontented ſtates, and the intrigues of cabinets to be overawed. It was natural therefore, in theſe circumſtances, that France ſhould ſtation her diſpoſeable troops along the frontier, in a ſort of activity, and in the expectation of ſervices, in order to prevent idleneſs, cabal, remiſſneſs, and deſertion. But, while it was ridiculouſly aſſerted, and as ridiculouſly believed by many, that France had, in the month of Auguſt, from 60 to 80,000 men aſſembled in the neighbourhood of Dunkirk, 30,000 near Calais and Boulogne, 30,000 in Flanders and Holland, and 60 or 70,000 more in the neighbourhood of Rochford and Breſt, all her preparations were, in reality but ſlight, and utterly inadequate to the object which ſhe profeſſed to have in contemplation. There was little danger of an attack from an enemy, whom our light-ſhips of war every where inſulted on their own coaſts, who were every where attacked, and almoſt conſtantly with ſucceſs, by Britiſh ſquadrons, and individual ſhips of inferior force, and the amount of whoſe progreſs towards invaſion was little more than to ſmuggle a few gun-boats along their own coaſts, when they had the good fortune to eſcape being captured in the main ſeas, by regaining the port from whence they came. The veſſels were frequently drawn along ſhore by horſes.

On the 11th of June, the boats of ſir John Borlaſe's ſquadron cut out, from the harbour of St. Croix, eleven French ſhips laden with proviſions and ſtores for the combined fleets in the harbour of Breſt. By the boats alſo of ſir John Borlaſe Warren's ſquadron, a number of the enemies veſſels was deſtroyed, June 22, in Quimper-bay. On the 27th of May, his majeſty's brig of war, Speedy, commanded by lord Cochrane, fell in with ſome Spaniſh veſſels, under convoy of his catholic majeſty's xebec, Elgamo, of 258 men, and 36 guns. The Speedy, carrying fourteen four-pounders, captured nine ſhips of the convoy; and, having ſent men on board of the prizes, ſhe had only 25 men remaining out of ſeventy, her original compliment. She was chaſed by the xebec, which gained upon her rapidly. But her brave commander was determined that ſhe ſhould not be a cheap conqueſt. Accordingly, a warm action commenced, which, however, did not laſt long. The xebec, after having loſt ſome of her hands, ſurrendered to the Speedy, and was taken by her, along with the other prizes, and priſoners, into the harbour of Mahon, in Minorca.

On the 21ſt of July, the boats of his majeſty's ſhips, the Doris, Beaulieu, and Urania, which compoſed part of the inſhore ſquadron off Breſt, entirely manned by volunteers, under the direction of lieutenant Luſack boarded and carried the French national corvette, La Chevrette, mounting 20 guns, manned, and completely prepared for a voyage to St. Domingo, with three hundred and fifty men, under the batteries in the bay of Cameret, and in the preſence of the combined fleets of France and

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Spain. The attack was made during the night: but, as soon as the enemy perceived the English boats approaching, they began a heavy fire, both from the ship and the shore. The contest lasted two hours and a half, during which time a dreadful carnage took place on both sides. The French ship's deck, when she struck, was literally covered with the mingled bodies of the contending parties.

In the night of the 20th of August, the boats of the British ships of war, the Fisiguard, the Diamond, and the Boadicea, under the direction of lieutenant Pipon, cut out of the harbour of Corunna, a new ship, pierced for 20 guns, a gun-boat mounting a long 32 pounder, and a merchant ship: all of them moored within the strong batteries that protect the port. The prizes were towed out of the harbour under a heavy fire, with great coolness and perseverance.

About the same time, some English frigates burned a mass of pitch and tar, on the coast of Picardy, attacked a division of flat-bottomed boats on their way from St. Vallery, to join the flotilla at Boulogne, took three, and blew up four.

A division of 30 or 40 gun and flat bottomed boats at Calais, and another division, supposed to be nearly the same number, were blocked up, at this time, August 22, each by seven or eight English ships of war: while, two ships of the line, a frigate, two brigs, and three or four cutters were stationed off Boulogne. Yet, notwithstanding this blockade, gun-boats, armed flat bottomed boats, and other small craft of the French, made their way from one port to another, and were brought together in great numbers at Dunkirk, Calais, Boulogne, Havre, La Hogue, Dieppe, Cherbourg, St. Maloes, and other places. But the place of rendezvous, for the whole or the greater part, was Boulogne. The French small craft were frequently enabled to make their way, in good weather, by keeping close to the shore, while the English ships of war were out in the open sea.

The nature of the maritime war that was, at this time, carried on close in on the French side of the channel, and the extreme absurdity of the threatened invasion will appear from the mention of one circumstance, that when their vessels were enabled to skulk along the shore, and to escape from the British ships of war, by means of batteries on land, this was published as matter of congratulation and triumph. The following article, extracted from the French journals, was considered as a piece of great and good news.

BREST, August 22d. "Four chasse-marées, laden with salt, having doubled the point of Pennemarck, were chased about nine o'clock in the morning by an English frigate, which endeavoured to cut off their retreat from Audierne. The troops of artillery and infantry were at their post; already the frigate had discharged several shots on one of the chasse-marées, and had considerably damaged it. It was on the point of surrendering when the crew were loudly encouraged from the battery of Cremence to continue their voyage, with assurances that they would receive the necessary degree of protection from a battery near at hand. Encouraged

couraged by this, the veſſel continued it courſe, and arrived in ſafety, at the place of its deſtination.

The officer commanding the battery, ſeeing that the three other veſſels were making the ſhore, at an intermediate point, and that the frigate had manned three boats, to defeat their deſign for want of houſes cauſed the cannoniers to drag along the beach a field piece three quarters of the way. But, their ſtrength failing them, they took up their muſkets, and conjointly with the infantry, flew to the place where the veſſels were aground. But the enemy had previouſly reached the place, and had time, in ſpite of a very brisk fire from the battery of Sluck, to ſet fire to two of the chaſſemarees, and to carry off the third. Two officers of the 40th, with a number of fuſileers and cannoniers precipitated themſelves on board the veſſels. In the face of one hundred and fifty ſhots from the frigate, which was at anchor, oppoſite to them, they ſucceeded in extinguiſhing the fire on board one of them, and brought her ſafe into the port of Audierne. Two much praiſe cannot be beſtowed on the activity and zeal of the officers, fuſileers, and cannoniers."

Thus the French and Engliſh were buſily employed in keeping each other on the alert. A mighty force was collected on either ſide of the channel. More and more troops were continually drawing to the French coaſt. Reinforcements, on the other hand, were daily ſent to the Britiſh, ſo that, by the beginning of Auguſt, the ſea was covered in a manner with our ſhips of war along the whole extent of the coaſt, from which the enemy might attempt to execute their threats of invaſion. But a ſyſtem of mere defence was not conſidered as worthy of the Britiſh nation. Even menaces of invaſion were not to paſs with impunity. It would have been madneſs to have attempted an invaſion of France: but there were different points on the coaſts of France, Flanders, and Holland, where deep wounds might be given; and where the painful and tedious preparations of the enemy might be diſconcerted in a moment.

To turn the tide of war, from defenſive to offenſive, was deemed not leſs wiſe than magnanimous conduct. The nature of war merely defenſive was diſpiriting. It gave the enemy not only the choice of his time and place, but the advantage of courage and energy in his attack. It was better to hazard ſomething in offenſive war than to lower the public mind by ſuſpenſe. At the very point of time, therefore, when the project of invading this country appeared to be ripe for execution, it was determined that lord Nelſon, with a flotilla of gun-boats, and other armed veſſels, backed by ſome ſhips of the line, ſhould carry the terrors of war home to the doors of France. A fitter agent for this purpoſe could not have been choſen than lord Nelſon. His very name was a tower of ſtrength: and every thing poſſible to be done was to be expected from the ſkill as well as gallantry of his conduct. There were, however, not a few, who diſapproved the appointment of lord Nelſon to the command of this flotilla. There were not wanting many other ſkilful and intrepid commanders. And there would have been more dignity, it was thought, to have ſhewn that we had other naval commanders fitted to conduct

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an expedition of gun-boats, beſides the illuſtrious conqueror at Aboukir and Copenhagen.

Nec deus interfit niſi dignus, vindice nodus Inciderit.—*Hor.*

But lord Nelſon, himſelf, offered his ſervices. It has been ſaid, we know not how truly, that the plan of attacking, inſtead of waiting to be attacked by the French, was firſt propoſed by lord Nelſon to lord St. Vincent.

While the armament, to be directed by lord Nelſon, was drawing together at Sheerneſs and the Nore, a ſtop was put to all intercourſe between England and the oppoſite coaſts. Orders were ſent by government not to ſuffer any perſons whatever to land from France, Flanders, or Holland.

The French, inſtead of making attacks on England, were wholly employed in preparations for defence againſt the dreaded attacks of the Engliſh armament. At Boulogne, Dunkirk, Dieppe, Havre, Cherbourg, and other places, where the Engliſh might direct their attacks, land forces were collected from the neighbouring quarters; batteries were conſtructed, and furnaces erected for heating red-hot ſhot; all which had fires in them ready for ſervice. The French were every where, on their coaſts, kept on the alert, and felt that anxiety and alarm which unavoidably ariſes in the moſt courageous breaſts from ignorance of the particular point to be attacked by a brave and enterpriſing commander.

The war between France and Britain aſſumed now an aſpect extremely intereſting to every individual of the French and the Britiſh nations. In former wars, and in the preceding part of the preſent, hoſtilities were carried on in diſtant colonies. In Italy, Germany, or other parts of the continent, the nations ſeemed now to come to cloſe quarters with each other. The conteſt bore ſomewhat of the character of the ſtruggles between the French and Engliſh in the days of our Henrys and Edwards. The French encampments, on the coaſt of Picardy, were ſeen with the aid of glaſſes, from Dover, and bodies of Engliſh troops were in like manner ſeen from Calais.

On the 30th of July, lord Nelſon hoiſted his flag on board the Leyden of 68 guns, at Deal, and took the command of the armament, deſtined for an unknown expedition.* Curioſity was greatly excited, all was anxious expectation.—lord Nelſon, with the ſquadron under his command, on ſailing from Deal, Auguſt 1ſt, ſtood over to the coaſt of France. Boulogne ſur Mer was the place on which it was reſolved to make the attack. This, as above noticed, was the principal place of rendezvous, on the oppoſite coaſt, where the enemy had been aſſembling their numerous ſmall craft, as was given out, for the invaſion of this country. The gun-boats and flat-bottomed boats, in the harbour of Boulogne, had been reinforced by a flotilla from Calais, conſiſting of ſix gun-brigs, four lug-

* The force, under his command, comprehended, beſides the Leyden, the de Ruyter of 64 guns, the Iſis of 50 guns, the Hind and Brilliant frigates, together with a great number of bombs and gun-boats, Revenue-cutters, and armed pinnaces, in all about 40 ſail. His lordſhip afterwards ſhifted his flag to the Meduſa frigate.

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guns, and two schooners. The design of the enemy, to come out, was soon perceived by our cruizers in this quarter, they slipped their cables, and gave them chace, but found it difficult to get within shot of them; so that, by keeping in close by the shore, they got into Boulogne. In this harbour there were now, besides the flotilla from Calais, two schooners and sixteen gun-boats and luggers. On either side of the town there was formed an extensive encampment. Lord Nelson, having arrived off Boulogne, employed all Monday, August 3d, in reconnoitring the fortifications of the place, and concerting the best plan for an attack.

The shore at Boulogne stretches nearly towards the east and west. Towards the east, a point of land runs out, forming a bay. In the middle of this is the mouth of the harbour, which looks out to the north. The enemy's vessels, consisting of six brigs, two schooners, and about twenty gun-boats, were arranged in a line along the beach, not half a mile from shore, one half east, but the longest half west of the harbour's mouth, in front of which was the largest brig. On the beach of the harbour was a strong battery, and another on the pier-head, east of the harbour.

Lord Nelson, on Monday evening, stood close into Boulogne, with some of the bomb-vessels, and threw several bombs to try how they would reach the enemy. Finding that they reached the shore, he made a signal of recal, and the whole armament anchored about four miles from the land. Orders were given to begin the attack at break of day next morning, 4th of August. At four o'clock, he himself, stationed the bombs, five in number, in an oblique line, stretching from the west end of the line of the enemy. They came to anchor, and began to throw bombs about five o'clock. The other ships of war were stationed, under weigh, in another line, behind the bombs, ready to render assistance. His lordship's own flag was placed in front of the harbour, having our two lines, one of bombs, another of small ships of war, stretching from his right. Behind these was the Leyden, man of war. Lord Nelson's first intention was to attack the enemy's vessels with bombs only, as these reach much farther than shot, and would prove effectual, while the enemy's shot could not reach our vessels. At six o'clock, however, it being then high water, lord Nelson, in order to induce them to discloſe their strongest points, (for it was difficult to discover their batteries, the cliffs being of a brown clay), sent his ships of war very close to the shore, in face of the batteries, where they fired first one broadside, and tacking round, fired the other: and then sailing away, they loaded again for another such attack. This produced a heavy firing on both sides; but when the water fell, this of course was given over. The French batteries, on each side of the harbour, could only fire straight out, or nearly so, while our bomb-vessels were stationed so much to their left, that the batteries could not bear upon them. The French soon discovered the inutility of their batteries; they therefore set on a number of men to throw up works and batteries on the hill, in the eastern turn of the bay, which flanks the whole line of coast. But still they could not reach our bomb-vessels, which were at the extremity of the

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line of vessels to the westward. Only a few shells, therefore, were thrown from them. The object which the British admiral had in view, in the disposition of his vessels, was, to have all the French ships to retreat towards the mouth of the harbour, that being in a cluster, their destruction might be effected at night.

The wind being favourable for the bomb-vessels to act, he made the signal for them to weigh, and to throw shells at the enemy's vessels, but previous orders had been given, as little as possible to annoy the town. Six of the French vessels were so much damaged that they were towed from the scene of action. Five of them were got into the mole: one sunk; three others were also sunk; and one bulged. It was lord Nelson's intention in the dark to have sent three bombs close upon the enemy, each bomb towed by ten boats; which were also to tow the boats away, in case of accident. But the wind shifting, the attack became impracticable, without the utmost danger: and our whole fleet was obliged to haul off, without making the attempt. In this affair one of our engineers was wounded, and one seaman lost an arm; this was all our loss. As to the advantage gained, lord Nelson made no great account of it. "It would serve to convince the enemy, he said, in his dispatches to the admiralty, that they could not come out of their harbours with impunity."

While our ships of war were firing their broadsides at the French on shore, about seven in the morning, as abovementioned, lord Nelson moved about in his barge, making observations and minutes, which might be useful in a future attack. That some attack, either here, or elsewhere, was intended, he signified, in general orders, *Medusa, off Boulogne*, August 5. "Lord Nelson has reason to be very much satisfied with the captains of the bombs, for their placing of the vessels yesterday. It was impossible that they could be better situated: and the artillery officers have shewn great skill in disabling ten out of twenty-four, opposed to them. The commander-in-chief cannot avoid noting the great zeal and desire to attack the enemy in a closer and different combat, which manifested itself in all ranks of persons, and which lord Nelson would have gladly given full scope to, had the attempt at this moment, been proper. But the officers and others may rely, that an early opportunity shall be given them for shewing their judgement, zeal, and bravery."

On the 6th of August, the British admiral sailed, with part of his fleet, to Margate-roads. A number of his gun-boats returned to Deal. And a sufficient force remained off Boulogne. From Margate-roads, lord Nelson, without ever having gone ashore, again set sail, on the 8th, directing his course, at first, not to the Downs, but to the eastward, as if it had been his design to make an attack on Flushing, or some other port on the Dutch coast. But the real point of attack was no other than Boulogne. To an active and daring mind, accustomed to overcome all obstacles in the pursuit of victory and glory, the late success, in disabling so great a proportion of the flotilla, appeared, in the light of a disappointment, if not a defeat, rather than a matter of triumph. He was inflamed with an ardent desire of bringing off the the enemy's flotilla, which was moored

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moored in the front of Boulogne, to the number now of twenty-five armed veſſels.

This attempt, the effect of courage, carried by a tide of ſucceſs to the length of temerity, and almoſt madneſs, was made on the night between the 15th and 16th of Auguſt. The force collected at the Downs, for this ſecond attack, amounted to about ſeventy veſſels, of different deſcriptions: on board of which were ſome thouſands of marines. On the evening of the 15th, about duſk, our veſſels were ordered to form in four diviſions, to ſtorm the French line of boats, brigs, and luggers, defended by long poles, headed with ſpikes of iron, projecting from their ſides, and with a very ſtrong netting braced up to their lower yards, moored head and ſtern acroſs the harbour, with iron chains, in the ſtrongeſt manner, containing each from one hundred and fifty to two hundred ſoldiers, and under the protection of land-batteries as well as muſketry from the ſhore. Since the firſt bombardment, the enemy had erected batteries on every favourable point, and the army collected on the heights occupied a line of nearly three miles in length. But the circumſtance of the veſſels being made faſt to one another, and to the ground, by means of ſtrong iron chains, was then unknown to the Engliſh. Our men were provided with boarding-pikes, tomahawks, and cutlaſſes only. Fire-arms were forbidden, leſt they ſhould have been induced to fire, and alarm the enemy before they could be well up with their boats. The plan of the attack was as follows: The fleet was put into four diviſions of boats for boarding, each under the command of a captain; and a fifth diviſion of howitzer-boats. The firſt four diviſions conſiſted in flat-bottomed boats, armed only with marines, and the boats belonging to the different ſhips and cutters in the ſquadron. Each of theſe diviſions conſiſted of three flat-bottomed boats, and about ten ſix-oared boats. The firſt diviſion was commanded by captain Sommerville, of the Eugene; the ſecond, by captain Parker, of the Meduſa; the third, by captain Cotgrave, of the Gannet; the fourth, by captain Jones of the Diligence. The diviſion of howitzer-boats were under the direction of captain John Conn. The whole flotilla was formed into the different diviſions by the ſenior maſter and commander, captain Sommerville. Each diviſion had its proportionate number of enemies veſſels to attack; the firſt beginning to the eaſtward, and ſo on in the order weſtward. The boats, in their reſpective diviſions, put off from the Meduſa, at half paſt eleven at night, of the 15th. The ſecond diviſion, under captain Parker, cloſed with the enemy firſt, at half paſt twelve, Sunday morning. Captain Parker ordered captain Williams, with the ſub-diviſion under his orders, to puſh on to attack the veſſels to the northward of him, while he himſelf, with the others, ran alongſide a large brig off the mole head, wearing the commodore's pendent. The boats were no ſooner alongſide of this ſhip, than they attempted to board. But the ſtrong netting, already noticed, baffled all their endeavours, and an inſtantaneous diſcharge of guns, from about 200 ſoldiers on her gun-wale, laid captain Parker, with two-thirds of the crew, on their backs, into the boat, all either killed

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or desperately wounded. A part of the officers and crew of the Medusa were in the boat with captain Parker; and another part of them in the barge, under lieutenant Lougford, who nobly seconded the efforts of the captain until all her crew was disabled from making any effort. The barge, being on the outside, was enabled to get off with the tide; but the boat, in which captain Parker was, hung along-side; and, as there was not an officer or man left to govern her, must have fallen into the hands of the enemy, if she had not been taken in tow and carried off by the hon. Mr. Cathcart, who commanded the Medusa's cutter. Mr. Cathcart sustained the attack with the greatest intrepidity, until the desperate situation in which captain Parker was left, obliged him to call Mr. Cathcart to his assistance.

Mr. Williams led his sub-division to the enemy with the utmost gallantry. He took one lugger and had began to attack a brig, while his crews suffered equally with those under the immediate command of his captain. Nearly the whole of his own boat's crew were either killed or wounded.

The next division, that came up with the enemy, was that under the direction of captain Cotgrave. The captain, wishing to reduce the largest vessel first, lost no time in making the attack; but, in consequence of his leading the division, and of the enemy's opening a heavy fire from several batteries, thinking it advisable to give the enemy as little time as possible, he cut the tow-rope, and did not wait for the other boats: so that it was some little time before the other boats could get up. He received so many shots through the boat's bottom, that he soon found her in a sinking state; and, as it was not possible to stop so many shot-holes, he was obliged, with the men, to take to one of the boats of the ship, York, which soon came up with the rest of his division. Finding, from the number of men killed and wounded in the different boats, and the constant fire of grape and small arms from the shore, that there was not any prospect of success, he thought it for the good of his majesty's service to withdraw the boats between two and three in the morning.

The first division, carried by the rapidity of the tide, did not gain the place of its destination at the time intended; and captain Sommerville, finding that he was not likely to reach it in the order prescribed, gave directions for the boats to cast each other off. By so doing, he was enabled to come up with the enemy's flotilla, a little before the dawn of day, and, in the best order possible, to attack, close to the pier-head, a brig, which, after a sharp contest, he carried. Previously to this her cables were cut; but the captors were prevented from towing her off, by her being secured with a chain. Not seeing the least prospect of being able to get her off, and in consequence of a heavy fire of musketry and grape-shot that was poured on them from the shore, three luggers, and another brig within half pistol-shot, they were obliged to abandon her, and push out of the bay; as it was then completely daylight. The fourth division, notwithstanding every exertion, could not, on account of the rapidity of the returning tide, get to the westward of any part of the enemy's line, until near daylight. On approaching the eastern part of the

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the line, in order to assist the first division then engaged, they met them returning. Under these circumstances, and the day breaking apace, captain Jones judged it prudent to direct the officers commanding the different boats to return to their different ships.

Captain Conn, with the bowitzers, in support of captain Parker's division, advanced towards the pier, until he was aground in the headmost boat. He then opened his fire, and threw about eight shells into the harbour. From the strength of the ebb, he was not able to keep his station off the pier-head. He continued, however, his fire on the French camp, till the enemy's fire had slackened, and almost totally failed, and captain Parker's division had passed without him.

One French lugger only was brought off, with a lieutenant, eight seamen, and eight soldiers; being all that remained out of about double that number, with which she had been manned.

The loss of the English, in this second attack on Boulogne, in officers, seamen, and marines, killed and wounded, amounted to not less than 172. Among the wounded, was captain Parker, who lost a leg and thigh. The loss of the French is not known; though it is reasonably supposed to have been very considerable; not only from the havoc made by our seamen and marines, but from the vollies of musketry poured by the enemy, regardless of their own men, into their own brigs and boats, after they were boarded, and had fallen, or were likely to fall into the hands of the English. The French admiral, Latouche Treville, in his dispatches to the minister of the marine, stated the loss of the French at no more than ten men killed, and thirty wounded. This diminution, of what must have been the real loss here, is carried so far as to be wholly incredible. The admiral did not pretend to deny that our men boarded the French vessels with the utmost intrepidity; nor attempt to conceal that they were compelled to retire, merely in consequence of the impracticability of getting the ships off, and the strong fire of musketry kept up on them from the troops in the gun-boats, and that lined the shore. He denies, however, that a single shot was fired from the land batteries, from a dread of wounding and killing their own men.—Eight of our boats, according to the French accounts, were sunk, and four barges taken. They describe also the shocking spectacle that was presented on board their vessels after the action. The decks strewed with dead and dying; and fingers, hands, wrists, and arms, every where discovered, after the dead bodies were thrown into the sea.—The attempt was, in truth, a deplorable act of temerity: a prodigal exposure of human life.

The gallant admiral ascribed the failure of success "to the darkness of the night; the rapidity of the tide and half-tide; the separation of the divisions; and the circumstance of their not arriving all at the same happy moment with captain Parker. But it is sufficiently accounted for, by forests of cutlasses and bayonets; vollies of musketry and grape-shot, poured on our men, both from gun-boats, and from the shore, while they were employed in clearing away the strong boarding netting; the projecting spikes; and the chains which remained after our brave seamen had cut the cables of the

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the enemy's veſſels; and the barricades covering numerous troops abaft their mainmaſts.—We are, on all occaſions, happy to do juſtice to the enemy. The French commodore, (we are informed from the moſt indiſputable authority) addreſſed the firſt boat's crew that approached his ſhip, and in which was captain Parker, as already noticed, in the following words, which were ſpoken in pretty good Engliſh: "Let me adviſe you, my brave Engliſhmen, to keep your diſtance. You can do nothing here; and it is only uſeleſsly ſhedding the blood of brave men to make the attempt."

The tremendous engagement at Boulogne, in which the roar of ſo much artillery, both at ſea and on ſhore, ſeemed to ſhake both heaven and earth, were heard on both ſides of the channel, and the firſt, on both, was ſeen. During the whole of the action of the 3d of Auguſt, the hills near Boulogne were covered with ſpectators. The heights around Dover were, in like manner, covered with thouſands of people. It was a clear day, and the wind at ſouth-eaſt; ſo that the greater part of our ſhips were to be ſeen, while they kept up a fire on the harbour of Boulogne. The ſmoke of the French batteries, firing in return, was alſo diſtinctly ſeen. This is, perhaps, the firſt engagement of any magnitude, between France and England, that was ſeen from the ſhores of both countries.

On Sunday afternoon, lord Nelſon, with part of his fleet, returned to the Downs. The remainder continued, for ſome time, to cruiſe on the French coaſt.

September 14. The commander of the Engliſh cruiſers, captain Sommerville, anchored at the diſtance of a league and a half from the French line, which was called the advanced guard, with two large ſhips and a frigate, and ten veſſels of inferior note.

At Deal, lord Nelſon did every thing in his power for the relief or comfort of the brave men who had ſuffered in this unfortunate expedition; and his kind and cordial ſympathy afforded to our brave and generous ſeamen and marines a very ſenſible conſolation and pleaſure. His time was chiefly occupied in viſiting the wounded in the hoſpital. He paid the utmoſt attention to every individual; inquiring into their ſeveral caſes, and conſoling them with a promiſe, that he would ſhortly bring them good news. On aſking one man, whom he recollected, how he was, he learnt that he had loſt an arm. Lord Nelſon told him never to mind that; for that he himſelf had loſt one alſo, and perhaps ſhould ſhortly loſe a leg; but that they could never be loſt in a better cauſe than the defence of their country. This had a wonderful effect on the ſeamen. Several of them exclaimed, that they only regretted their wounds, as they prevented them from accompanying him in another attack on their enemies.

CHAP.

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CHAP. XVII.

Singular Modesty of the French, after the Repulse of the second Attack on Boulogne.—Accounted for.—Considerations inclining the French Government to Peace.—Flags of Truce.—Amidst continued Preparations on both Sides for War and mutual Invasion.—Negotiation for Peace—Brought to a Conclusion.—Preliminaries of Peace announced in the London Gazette.—Enthusiastic Joy at the Return of Peace, both in London and Paris, and all other Parts of France and Britain.—Very different Emotions excited by this Event in the Breast of the French Loyalists.—Their Cause deserted by the last Power in which they had still hitherto reposed some Hopes and Confidence.—New Hopes resorted to by the French Emigrants.—Their Situation described.—Reflections.—Peace between France and the Ottoman Porte.—Between France and the Elector Palatine of Bavaria.—Between France and Russia.—Between Great Britain and Russia, and acceded to by the other Northern Maritime Powers.—Convention between Buonaparte and the Pope for the Re-establishment in France of the Catholic Religion.—The Conduct of the Emigrant Bishops of France contrasted with that of the Constitutional Bishops.—And with that of the English Clergy in the Reign of Henry VIII.—Reflections.

FROM the vapouring boasts and menaces with which the French proclamations and other papers were usually stuffed, on the smallest advantage gained over the English at sea, it was to be expected that their repulse from Boulogne, on the 16th of August, would have been blazened in all the pomp of the most exaggerated description, accompanied with the most extravagant anticipations of victory and glory. The French admiral, however, in his dispatches to government, confined himself merely to a brief statement of facts: which, though exaggerated, in some instances, in order to place, in a more conspicuous point of view, the bravery of those who served under him, was, on the whole, consistent with those of our own commanders. Nor was the narrative of Treville, accompanied with the smallest comment, when it was published, either in the official journal, or any other of the French prints. It is in the circumstances that induced the French government to attune the public mind, in both the great rival nations, to the idea and expectation of peace, rather than of war, that we find an explanation of a silence so contrary to all its habits on similar occasions.

It was by this time sufficiently manifest, that all the French pre-

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parations for an invasion of Britain were but contemptible. Even the disastrous attack on the harbour of Boulogne, proved that the French were at that moment more anxious to preserve than to employ them offensively against the English. Truly, an invasion was neither to be dreaded nor expected from a nation that had been unable, in so great a space of time as had elapsed, to send to sea the combined fleets of France and Spain, or to keep a single boat in the harbour of Boulogne, the grand rendezvous of the invading flotilla, without chaining it to the ground, and without calling in, for its defence, their troops and their batteries.

It is difficult to conceive how manifestoes threatening invasion, after such a humiliating discovery, could have been drawn up in such a manner as to escape contempt and derision. So great was the naval strength of Great Britain, that at the very time when she was the most loudly threatened with an invasion from the coasts of France and Flanders, a squadron was sent north about, under commodore Tyler, to join sir James Saumarez, off Cadiz. The attainment, too, of the grand object for which the preparations and menaces of invasion had been so long kept up, had now become hopeless. From the time that the French were driven from Rhamanich into Cairo, and the failure of the expected relief and succours from the fleet under Gantheaume, the retention of Egypt by the French was not, by any means, to be expected. There were many other considerations, which, no doubt, had an influence on the mind of the chief consul: the death of Paul I. the dissolution of the northern confederacy; the naval power and glory of Great Britain still increasing; the union of all parties in this island; and prompt preparation for the defence of their country; discontents in Holland, Switzerland, and Piedmont; disputes in Germany about indemnities, and the difficulty of carrying into execution the treaty of Luneville; and, finally, the necessity of managing public opinion, and public spirit in France, which was exhausted and fatigued with war, and rendered, or soon to be rendered, as irritable as despondent, from the total failure of all the grand projects of a maritime coalition; the colonization of Egypt; and an invasion of Great Britain or Ireland, or both. While farther preparations were made on the one side of the channel for the defence of the coast, and a shew was still made of some effort towards invasion; on the other, British fleets, squadrons, and cruizers, hung over and alarmed the coasts of France, Flanders, and Holland.* Flags of truce were

* French gun-boats continued, as usual, to steal from place to place along the shore, and fresh alarms were raised on the coasts of the enemy by the English squadrons. It would not be worth while, did our limits admit, to enter minutely into this petty, and, indeed, mock warfare. On the 4th of September, a flotilla of gun boats, to the number of thirty-five gun brigs and schooners, escaped from Dunkirk to Calais, where they arrived towards sunrising next morning. It was stated, in the English papers, "that some of our cruisers, with a view to prevent their passage, had moored close in shore, which the French observed; and, favoured by a dark night, stood out to sea, and reached Calais in the morning before our vessels could get up with them." The French commodore, having noticed this, published a contradictory account of that *calumny*. It was not,

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were daily paſſing, amidſt veſſels of war, between Calais and Dover, and couriers between London and Paris. M. Otto ſtill remained in the Britiſh capital, and ſoon after the preliminaries of peace were ſigned and ratified between the French and Auſtrian governments, Mr. Merry was ſent to Paris, as an agent on the part of the Britiſh miniſtry. The negotiation for peace, which had been continued for near nine months, between M. Otto, on the part of France, and lord Hawkeſbury, our ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, and which was, no doubt, influenced by varying events, was at laſt brought to a concluſion. It was carried on with profound and admirable ſecrecy on both ſides. Great and important deciſions in the councils of ſtates, not wholly at the nod of a capricious deſpot, are generally anticipated by public opinion, notwithſtanding the ſecrecy of the negotiation. There was a general conviction among men, on both ſides the channel, whoſe minds were not darkened by too near and intereſted views of particular objects, that peace was now neither very uncertain, nor far diſtant. The growing ſyſtem of convenient ſpoliation was not to be overthrown, nor the doom of the continent to tremble, for a time, under the rod of France, reverſed by the utmoſt efforts of a ſingle power. And it had been fully proved, by a ſufficient number

ate, he ſtated, by running out beyond the Engliſh veſſels, that he reached his deſtination, but by boldly ſailing along the ſhores of France.—The following article from the Paris papers, conveys a very juſt idea of what was paſſing, at this time, in the channel:—"Boulogne, September 5. The diviſion of gun-boats, conſiſting of ſixteen veſſels, which was waiting at Dieppe for a favourable wind and opportunity to proceed to this port, arrived here laſt night. Only one veſſel remained behind, which ſtruck on the ſands on the beach, or ran aground, four leagues from this place. It is poſſible that ſhe may have met with obſtacles, which prevented her from getting farther; for a ſtrong wind prevailed, and the ſea was extremely boiſterous. *Troops were immediately diſpatched, and ſome pieces of artillery will be planted to prevent the Engliſh from getting poſſeſſion of her before ſhe is got off.* The weſt wind, which has driven the Engliſh from our coaſt, ſoon increaſed to ſuch violent gales, that one of their ſhips of war, after veering out all her cable, was obliged to cut it. The Engliſh left a buoy to enable them to find the anchor on their return; but general La Touche, who ſuffers nothing to eſcape him, perceived this buoy, and immediately ſent to cut it."

In the mean time, while the different diviſions of the French flotilla, as it was called, endeavoured, with various ſucceſs, to creep cloſe in ſhore, from one port to another, our fleets and ſquadrons ſtill kept thoſe of the enemy, as well as their harbours, in general alarm, took a number of ſmall prizes, and held all their armaments in a ſtate of perfect inaction.

The apprehenſion of attacks on the Dutch coaſt was not leſs than that on the coaſts of France. The fleet, under admiral de Winter, was held in blockade by admiral Dickſon; and here, too, the tide of alarm was completely turned. A ſquadron, under the immediate command of the active lord Nelſon, ſailing from Deal, Auguſt 23, inſulted the coaſts of Holland and Zealand. The Gallo-Batavian government was obliged to change their projects of offence into defenſive meaſures. The French general Augereau, after viſiting the Dutch fleet at Helvoetſluys, proceeded to inſpect the works of defence at the maritime poſts: at the Brill, Goree, the Iſle of Walkereen, the Helder, and other places. The gales that uſually precede the equinox, about the middle of September, drove the Engliſh cruiſers into the Downs; and the *advanced guard* of the French flotilla into the harbour of Boulogne. On the return of calm weather, both parties reſumed their ſtations.

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of experiments, that England had as little to apprehend from the invaſions of the French, as the French had from the invaſions of the Engliſh.

On Saturday, the 2d of October, there was given in a London Gazette Extraordinary, the following intelligence: "Preliminaries of peace, between his majeſty and the French republic, were ſigned, laſt night, at lord Hawkeſbury's office, in Downing-ſtreet, by the right honourable lord Hawkeſbury, one of his majeſty's principle ſecretaries of ſtate, on the part of his majeſty, and by M. Otto, on the part of the French government."

Theſe preliminaries were ratified, by the French government, at Paris, on the 5th of October. Great Britain acquired the iſland of Ceylon, in the Eaſt Indies, and that of Trinidad in the Weſt. Egypt was to be reſtored to the ſublime Porte, whoſe territories and poſſeſſions were to be preſerved entire, ſuch as they exiſted previouſly to the war. The territories and poſſeſſions of our ally the queen of Portugal were alſo to be preſerved entire. So alſo were thoſe of our ally the king of Naples:* every thing elſe was to be given up to France. Explanations and alterations were made in the definitive treaty, carried on and concluded at Amiens, more advantageous to France than the terms of the preliminaries: but theſe things fall naturally into the hiſtory of 1802. The ratification of the preliminaries was exchanged between lord Hawkeſbury and M. Otto on the afternoon of the 12th of October; it had been brought to London on the morning of that day, by M. Lauriſton, a colonel of artillery in the French army, an aid-de-camp, and a great favourite of Buonaparte's. There was a degree of propriety in tranſmitting the ratification by the hands of colonel Lauriſton, as his family, though now naturalized in France, was of Britiſh extraction, and the recollection of this yet recent. He was a great grandſon of the famous Miſſiſſippi Law, a gentleman of an ancient family, namely that of Lauriſton, in Scotland. The news of peace was received by the people of Great Britain with great and enthuſiaſtic joy. Illuminations, the firing of cannon, feaſtings, dramatic entertainments, poetical effuſions, and other expreſſions of ſatisfaction and gladneſs, carried in many inſtances almoſt to the height of phrenzy, expreſſed the joy of France. Never, perhaps, ſince the reſtoration of Charles II. was the general joy in England ſo high and extravagant. It was in proportion to the ſufferings that had been ſo long endured from the war, and the miſerable forebodings ariſing from a dread of its farther continuance. It is on the future that all projects and hopes of happineſs turn. The populace, and indeed all ranks, gave way, for a time, to the pleaſing deluſion, that ſome unknown good was ſoon to ſpring up like light out of darkneſs. Immediately on the arrival of colonel Lauriſton, in London, he went to M. Otto's houſe in Hereford-

* It is to be obſerved, however, that in execution of an agreement already made between France and Naples, the remains of the Neapolitan navy, conſiſting of two ſhips of the line, two frigates, and a brig, were delivered into the hands of the French; nor was there any ſtipulation, in the preliminaries of peace between France and England, for their reſtitution.

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ſtreet. His arrival having been hourly expected, the news thereof ſoon ſpread through the town, and attracted an immenſe number of the populace. After a ſtay of about an hour, the colonel, M. Otto, and two other French gentlemen came out, and entered their carriage, for the purpoſe of going to exchange the ratifications with lord Hawkeſbury, in Downing-ſtreet. The populace, however, aware of their intention, immediately took the horſes from the coach, and drew it down Oxford-ſtreet, Bond-ſtreet, and through Piccadilly to Downing-ſtreet, with loud acclamations. There the ratification was exchanged. On the return of the carriage, the populace, whoſe numbers was now conſiderably augmented, inſiſted on paying the ſame compliment to their French viſitors, by drawing them back as they had come, amidſt loud ſhouting and huzzaing. A party of the guards alſo attended in the eſcort to prevent riot and diſorder, and in farther compliment to the welcome ſtrangers. Colonel Lauriſton gave the populace ten guineas to drink. He was a very handſome young man, about 27 or 28 years of age, and of a very genteel and pleaſing addreſs. During his ſtay in London, which was but for a few days, he never appeared in the ſtreets without attracting a crowd: and he was always greeted with loud huzzas.

The manner in which the Engliſh people treated M. Otto and colonel Lauriſton was conſidered as a proof that the former hatred to the French, by which they had been too long diſtinguiſhed, had been extremely weakened by the miſeries of war, and that the hope and the neceſſity of a ſpeedy peace, were ſuperior to every conſideration.

But while all ranks rejoiced at the arrival of peace, there were many who loudly arraigned, and none who did not lament, the conditions on which it was obtained, on the part of Great Britain.

On the news of the preliminaries, October 3, the three per cent. ſtocks ſuddenly roſe from 59 to 66. At Paris, where joy and hope were as extravagant, the *Tiers Conſolidés* roſe from 48 to 53. Another ſtock, called *Rentes Proviſoires* roſe in a higher proportion: viz. from 33 to 40.

Peace was proclaimed in every part of the world; an intercourſe was immediately opened between the ports of France and England, and packets regularly interchanged. The recruiting ſervice in both countries were diſcontinued: and bodies of troops were diſbanded. Addreſſes on the peace to our ſovereign in this country, and to the chief conſul in France, poured in from all quarters. The work of pacification was juſtly aſcribed to Buonaparte, who was called the *hero-pacificator of Europe*. To the addreſs from the legiſlative body, he replied, that "the peace was owing to the ſtability to be expected from the organization of ſocial order and government."

Very different were the feelings excited by the preliminaries of peace in the boſoms of the French princes, and other emigrants, and in all their warmeſt partizans of every nation, who ſaw in the recognition and conſolidation of Buonaparte's power, not only the ruin of the royal cauſe in France, but the ſubverſion of the balance of power, and even of all

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subordination, civilization, and property in Europe. The night of that day, on which the preliminaries were ratified at London, so splendidly illuminated in that great capital, was, to the French emigrants there, a night of darkness and horror. The melancholy, despondent grief, and indignation, that took hold on the minds of the poor, ignorant, and superstitious priests, of the lower order, seemed to be sanctioned by the voice of heaven. Between ten and eleven o'clock, there was the most tremendous storm of thunder, lightning, and rain, that was ever witnessed, perhaps, by the present generation, and at that season of the year very unusual. The lightning was vivid in the extreme. The whole sky, in every direction, for more than the space of an hour, seemed in a blaze. And what added, in the eyes of the superstitious, to the omen, at the admiralty-office, where the illumination was displayed in the shape of a crown and anchor, the crown was extinguished by the storm, while the anchor continued in all its splendour.

The frantic Paul, of Russia, abandoning the cause he had so warmly espoused, and burning with zeal to express, by all possible means, his zeal for the French republic, had given orders, that the prince of Bourbon, calling himself Lewis XVIII. should quit Mittau: on which, the unfortunate prince sought from the king of Prussia, and found an asylum, first at Koningsberg and afterwards in Warsaw. Russia was the only power on the continent, wholly independent on France. Yet, when Russia failed, it was some consolation to the French loyalists, that Britain still presented, not only an undaunted, but hostile front to the republic, and still held out, some glimmering hopes of giving a favourable turn to the royal cause, through the vicissitudes of fortune, tortured into a display of power by force of arms. In this humble, anxious, but patient state the French emigrants in London had long remained; sustaining adversity with noble recollections, the pride of honour, chastised and mellowed by affliction, and some faint hopes of seeing better days. From the melancholy and pitiful remains of their shipwrecked fortunes, contributions were made for preserving from the contagion of vice, and the low-minded vulgar, the children, destined on their entrance into life, to share deeply in the sufferings and sorrows of their parents, and to nourish in their bosoms, sentiments of morality and religion, and of loyalty, reverence, and devotion to the sovereign family of France. A modest chapel was raised, and a school, under the direction of a worthy clergyman, the younger *Monsieur Carron*, instituted at Somer's Town, a new suburb of London, where the scale of the houses was calculated for the reception of poor people. Here the children of the emigrants, with as many of the natives of Great Britain and Ireland as their parents or guardians chose to send to it, were educated with the utmost attention to morals, religion, and all acquirements to be attained in tender years. The count d'Artois, the prince of Condé, and others of the princes and nobles of France, attended the public examination of the seminary, and by the distribution of small premiums, encouraged the virtuous sentiments and designs, which it was the object of the institution to promote. In this lowly retreat, sentiments of the most pure and exalted nature were displayed on

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on both sides. The devotion of the French to the race of their kings, kind and good on the whole, was expressed in repeated exclamations of *Vive le Roi*, mingled with tears: and corresponding sentiments were expressed, also, in tears, by the princes of Bourbon. It was an affecting and instructive scene; a school for teaching the vanity of the world; and particularly the vanity of putting any trust in princes. The royal and noble emigrants of France could not have believed, until they had been taught by experience, that the house of Bourbon would have been so completely deserted in a general contest for the cause of sovereigns. Although, as Mr. Pitt argued, with the coldness of a barrister, there had been no positive engagement contracted with the emigrants, yet, by their co-operation with the allies, they were one of the parties allied in fact. The utter silence in the preliminaries for peace between the republic and Great Britain, respecting their helpless condition, therefore, must have filled the minds of the French loyalists, with every painful emotion and passion.

After the ratification of the preliminaries, the count d'Artois, (MONSIEUR) with the other French princes, dreading the arrival of a French ambassador, in London, retired to the palace of *Holyrood-house*, at Edinburgh.

Yet, utterly to extinguish hope, is a thing almost impossible. Among the loyalists, and these the most enlightened, there were not a few, who considered the concentration of power in France in a single and vigorous hand, as a presage auspicious to the restoration of the monarchy. Some believed that this had been all along the ultimate object of a plan, arranged between Buonaparte, and the abbé Sieyes. Others, that though this was not the design, it would follow, as a matter of course. The way to it was prepared by the establishment of absolute power. It was impossible that ideas of restoring Charles II. of Great Britain could have prevailed during a commonwealth. The restoration of the king was necessarily preceded by the reign of a lord protector. What Cromwell was to England, Buonaparte would prove to France.—Such was the reasoning of many of the emigrants, driven to the last shifts of hope: neither is it our meaning to deride it as altogether whimsical.

This was the year of treaties for pacification. The treaties between the French and Austrians; between the French republic and the king of Naples; between Spain and Portugal; and between France and Portugal, have been already noticed.*—The moment that intelligence was received at Paris, that preliminaries of peace were signed by the British government, Buonaparte patched up a peace with the Ottoman Porte. In this transaction, and also in a measure taken for expediting the peace with England, there appears very much of Italian artifice or cunning: which, though not to be too rigorously censured in a politician, detract, nevertheless, from dignity and greatness of character, and sometimes pay dearly, in the loss of estimation, for a temporary

* In the end of 1800, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded between the French republic and the dey of Algiers.

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convenience or advantage. Conscious power and ability are usually as direct in their course, as they are strong in their nature. Though, after the return of Reynier and the other French officers who accompanied him; and the subsequent news of the fall of Cairo, and other circumstances, it was impossible that he could entertain any hope of retaining Egypt, he published in all the French papers, that there was a sufficient store of provisions and ammunition, in Alexandria, for several years. The voluntary evacuation of Egypt by the French, and the integrity of the Ottoman empire, was therefore held out as an equivalent for the restitution of French colonies by the English. On the very day after the signing of the preliminary treaty at London, October 2, intelligence was received, in this capital, of the surrender of Alexandria, and the evacuation of Egypt. The news of the preliminaries being signed, and the London Gazette, of October 3, announcing the capitulation of general Menou, for the surrender of Alexandria, having reached Paris on the 7th, immediately, a kind of exambassador, from the Porte, Esseyd Aly Effendi, who had been detained in Paris, as a hostage, since 1793, and who was unprovided with any diplomatic powers from his court, was called from the retirement in which he lived, for the purpose of negotiation. Special care, in the meantime, was taken, that he should be so watched, and occupied, as neither to have time nor opportunity for hearing of the fall of Alexandria. The journalists received strict orders not to say a word, or give a hint of this event, until they should receive permission and orders to do so. The treaty between France and the Ottoman Porte* was signed, October 9. The next day, and not before, a translation of the London Gazette, just mentioned, appeared in the French paper, called, *Defenseurs de la Patrie*. Poor Esseyd Aly was cajoled by Talleyrand into a persuasion, that his country owed to France the evacuation of Egypt, which had been delivered by the arms, and already given up by a treaty with England. The Turks, menaced with a descent by the French from the ports of Ancona and Otranto, and other points on the coast of the Adriatic, had proposed reconciliation, and a return of peace with France; on condition, however, of the restitution of Egypt, to which the French government had hitherto refused to accede. The influence of Paul I. too was employed in his usual manner, in order to induce the Turks to cede Egypt to France. But they said, that it was contrary to the law, to "alienate a dominion of the eldest son of the prophet."

By the treaty with the Porte, France was admitted to all the privileges of the most favoured nation. So that the English, the deliverers of Egypt, were not, in future, to enjoy the smallest advantage in the Turkish empire, that should not also be enjoyed by the French; who, in violation of all former treaties, had tyrannized over Egypt for three years, and well-nigh severed that province from the Ottoman empire for ever.

On the 24th of August, a treaty of peace was concluded between

* See State Papers, p. 292.

the

the French republic and the elector palatine of Bavaria, in which that prince renounced, in favour of the French republic, all claim to the countries and dominions he had heretofore poſſeſſed on the left bank of the Rhine; and whereby the French republic, on the other hand, guaranteed to the elector, the integrity of all his poſſeſſions on the right bank, and engaged to uſe all its influence, for carrying into effectual execution, the 7th article of the treaty, particularly with reſpect to Bavaria: ſo as that the electoral palatine houſe ſhould receive a territorial indemnity, ſituated as well as poſſible for its convenience, and equivalent to the loſſes of every kind which had been the conſequence of the preſent war.*

Though the emperor Paul had become as zealous a friend to the French republic, as he was an infuriated enemy to Great Britain, his former engagements with the Britiſh government had not been retracted by any formal pacification with France. It was not till the 17th of October, that a treaty of peace was ſigned between France and Ruſſia. By this treaty, the French nation acquired very conſiderable commercial advantages.

That all matters in diſpute between Great Britain and the northern powers were amicably adjuſted after the death of Paul, and the battle of Copenhagen, has been already noticed. It may be juſt mentioned in the preſent enumeration of treaties, that the convention by which they were ſo adjuſted was ſigned at Peterſburgh, on the 17th of June.†

There remains yet another treaty to be noticed, of a very extraordinary nature, and not leſs important, probably in its proximate effects, and remote conſequences, than any yet mentioned: a convention between Buonaparte and the Pope, whereby his holineſs agreed that the Gallican church ſhould be decompoſed, and modelled anew, according to the good pleaſure of the chief conſul. The object of this convention, which was called a *concordatum*, was to re-eſtabliſh, in France, the public worſhip of the catholic religion. There was to be a general reſignation of the French biſhops, both of thoſe who had acknowledged the revolution, or as it would have been briefly, and not unhappily expreſſed, in a former, and no very diſtant period, *bowed the knee to Baal*, and of thoſe who ſacrificing all worldly advantages to conſcience, or rather in truth, in theſe times, to a ſenſe of honour, had quitted their dioceſes and France, and voluntarily embraced the hard lot of the other emigrants. The epiſcopal ſees were to be filled up with perſons preſented to them by the firſt conſul, and confirmed by the pope, as had been done in France before the revolution. The curates or pariſh miniſters were to be appointed by the biſhops and prefects, conjointly. The catholic religion was to be recognized as that of the majority of the French. Its miniſters were to have ſalaries,‡ and a ſanction was to be given to the ſale of eccleſiaſtical property. The forms of the engagement to be taken by the clergy, was, "I promiſe fidelity to the government of the French republic, as eſtabliſhed by the conſtitution."

The worldly-wiſe, or as they

* See State Papers, p. 297. † Ibid. p. 212. ‡ Ibid. p. 382.

were

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were commonly called, the conſtitutional biſhops, did not now hellitate to reſign their benefices, for the prevention of ſchiſm, and the preſervation of the unity of the church. The united voices that demanded their reſignation were not to be reſiſted; and, beſides, it was well underſtood that their offices would be quickly reſtored to them. It was only taking out a new leaſe. Of the emigrant biſhops, by far the greater number, with many expreſſions of the profoundeſt reſpect for the head of the church, and devotion to the Chriſtian cauſe, complied with the requeſt of the holy father. Others, with equal profeſſions of reſpect and devotion, and theſe not by any means ſuſpected of being inſincere, could not but pauſe before they complied with a requeſt exported by an over-bearing force. They could not conſider the holy father as in a ſtate of freedom. They doubted, whether to diſſolve at once the bonds that connected the biſhops with their dioceſes, in ſuch times, was for the good of the church: nor had ever ſo extraordinary a meaſure been taken, in any period of the church, without the approbation and ſanction of a general council.

RELIGION that had loſt its power over the human mind from an alliance with an inordinate degree of wealth and power, and carnal paſſions, was now ſeen as uſual, in a ſtate of ſuffering and trial, to recover her influence with the natural ſimplicity, beauty, and dignity of her form. The ſeeds of her future progreſs were ſown, as it were, again in a ſoil mellowed by affliction. The conſtitutional biſhops were univerſally deſpiſed, and very generally deteſted. It was the noble conduct of the French clergy, who ſacrificed all to their religious duty, that revived and nouriſhed the flame of piety in the weſtern and other provinces. Had all the clergy of France proved *vicars of Bray*,* all reſpect for the catholic religion muſt have ſoon died away. Expiring devotion was revived by a degree of martyrdom. Buonaparte, who profeſſed himſelf to be a diſciple of Mahomed, and boaſted of having deſtroyed the pope, did not hellitate to patronize the romiſh religion, when, by ſo doing, he might gratify a majority of the French nation, and even render it an inſtrument for the conſolidation of his own government. That theſe were his motives he made no ſcruple frankly to acknowledge in the council of ſtate.

When objections were made to the meaſure, by ſome of the members who conſidered it as too great a deviation from the original principles of the revolution, and that it might be followed by conſequences dangerous to the preſent government, Buonaparte, with a mixture of ſerioufneſs and irony, replied, "Make you no account then of a clergy who will pray every day for the ſafety of the republic, and of biſhops who will be obliged by their oath, to reveal all plots againſt it?"† It

* An alluſion to a certain pariſh-prieſt, who, amidſt all the changes in this country in the latter part of the 17th century, was determined ſtill to be vicar of Bray.—To be a *vicar of Bray* has almoſt become an idiom in the Engliſh language. It expreſſes much in few words.

† Among a great variety of ſquibs and epigrams that were circulated at this time on the ſubject of the *Concordat*, the following was much noticed.

Politique

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It is natural on the preſent occaſion to recollect the changes that took place in the church of England, in the reign of Henry VIII. and the conduct of our biſhops and other dignitaries, and the clergy in general at that period. Henry not only renounced the authority of the pope, in matters of external order and regulation, and ſuppreſſed and ſeized the revenues of religious houſes, but erected himſelf into the head of the Engliſh church in all reſpects. He not only dictated in matters of exterior form or ceremony of worſhip, but, aſſuming the ſupremacy in all caſes, both ſpiritual and temporal, preſcribed articles of faith, both to the church and nation. Theſe he changed, and ſtill required that both church and nation ſhould change their opinions as he changed his. The conduct of the chief conſul of France, in ſubjecting the church in temporal and external concerns to the ſtate, was moderate and mild when compared with the capricious tyranny of the Engliſh monarch. We do not, however, read of any emigrations or even reſignations of the Engliſh clergy at that period.—The different parts that were acted by the French clergy of the preſent age, and by the Engliſh clergy in the 16th century, may juſtly be conſidered as a very curious and wonderful phenomenon in morals. Of the authenticity and truth of the Chriſtian religion, the Engliſh divines had not the ſmalleſt doubt. With regard to the truth of the Roman catholic faith, it is no breach of charity to ſuppoſe, that the ſuperior orders of the French clergy, of our times, are for the moſt part ſceptical; yet the greater part of the French biſhops, as well as their clergy, reſigned their benefices: the Engliſh clergy, amidſt all the caprices of the king, held theirs faſt. What is the inference? that a ſenſe of honour is a more ſteady and powerful motive of action, than at leaſt an ordinary degree of zeal for religion. Religion, when allied with metaphyſical diſtinctions, can eaſily cover various windings and backſlidings, under ſpecious pretences. But honour knows no ſubterfuges; for the laſt appeal is to itſelf.

Though the convention between the pope and Buonaparte was ſigned ſo early as the 26th of July, and ratified on the 10th of September, it was not carried into effect until April, 1802. It was deemed political wiſdom, it would ſeem, by Buonaparte, to defer ſo popular a meaſure as the re-eſtabliſhment of the Roman catholic religion, for ſome time. It would be looked to as an object of hope, a livelier emotion than gratitude; and the boon when granted might compenſate and obliterate the remembrance of ſome grievances, perhaps, and diſappointments.

Politique plus fin que général habile,
Bien plus ambitieux que Louis, dit le Grand:
Pour être roi d'Egypte, il croit à l'Alcoran,
Pour être roi de France, il croit à l'Evangile.

Still better a politician than a general,
More ambitious than Lewis, called the Great:
To be king of Egypt, he believed in the Koran,
To be king of France, he believed in the Goſpel.

CHAP.

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CHAP. XVIII.

Alteration of Political Power between Deſpotiſm and Democracy—General Plan or Principles of Buonaparte's Government.—His private Conduct or Deportment.—His Repreſentation of the State of France, involving a ſummary View of the State of Europe, towards the Concluſion of 1801.—*Additional Remarks on the State of Europe.—Agitations in Germany, Switzerland, and the French Weſt Indies.—Hanover evacuated by the Pruſſians.—Tottering State of the Turkiſh Empire.—Inſurrections in the new Republic of the Seven Iſles.—General View of the State of Britiſh India.*

IT has been obſerved, that political power, which is never long fixed at one point, vibrates alternately, in all its viciſſitudes, between deſpotiſm and democracy. When it has, for ſome time been concentrated on the head of one man, it is afterwards diſperſed into the hands of ſeverals, and *vice verſa*. In ſuch a nation as France, ſo numerous, reſtleſs, ardent, fond of innovation, and not yet quite habituated to the yoke of abſolute power, it certainly required not leſs ability and addreſs to retain, than thoſe by which Buonaparte had obtained the reigns of government. During the two firſt years of his reign, the public mind was eaſily occupied, and managed by means of foreign war and negociation. France was now at peace with all the world, and the firſt queſtion, it may be fairly preſumed, with the firſt conſul, was, how, by management of the French, he might conſolidate his own power and authority.

It would appear to have been the general plan of his government from the beginning, to unite vigour with lenity; to amuſe and gratify the French people as much as poſſible; to qualify, or rather over-awe liberty, privileges, and pretenſions, by a complicated chain of dependencies on himſelf, as well as by the command of a great military power; for the keeping of which, on foot, he could never want pretences. Such was his plan: nor in truth was the French nation to be governed by any other.

But, at the ſame time, it is but juſtice to the firſt conſul to obſerve, and to record, that neither was his power exerciſed with wanton caprice, nor unemployed for the public advantage. In his preferments to office, he was generally guided by a regard to merit, and the opinion of the nation. He reſtored the operation of laws, and, as much as he could, that of religion. He ſet very ſeriouſly about improving the civil

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civil law of France, founding it wholly on a moral basis, or the principles of human nature, and extending its influence, for the comfort and well-being of individuals, to many domestic situations or cases, and other relations, of which the law had not formerly taken any cognizance. He formed a plan for the education of youth, in all the departments, the encouragement of genius, and the advancement of science. He turned his attention to the re-establishment of a regular system of finance, of a navy, of commerce, of agriculture, and manufactures. He liberally patronized and was assiduous in his attention to the arts, liberal and mechanical; to the formation or restoration of canals, bridges, and high-ways: and, in a word, to the general strength, resources, and prosperity of the empire. Nor was he inattentive to what was demanded by the particular or national character of the French; naturally fond of splendour, pomp, parade, shew, and amusement. Indeed, in the way of pleasing the taste of the French in these respects, he had an opportunity of strengthening his own power, by the distribution of vast sums of money in improving and embellishing the capital, and other places, among which the consular palaces were not forgotten, and in increasing the splendour of all that related to the exterior state and security of the chief magistrate.

At the same time that Buonaparte was not an enemy, but a friend to public feasts, spectacles, and other entertainments, yet he laboured by all means, by his regulations, countenance, and example, to discourage and check whatever was loose in morals, or frivolous, enervating, and unmanly, in matters of amusement or taste. He honoured marriage, and a domestic life; constancy and sincerity in attachments and friendships; and all manner of ingenious, industrious, and laborious occupation. For what concerns the theatre, a very capital consideration indeed, in France, he set his face, severely against all loose and frivolous pieces, and encouraged, on the other hand, such as were of a moral, grave, and dignified cast. He shewed more countenance to tragedies than to the greater part of comedies.

In his own private deportment, he exhibited to the French an example of a simple and laborious life. He was not addicted to any pleasures that were not pure, noble, and sublime. He lived comfortably in his own family; he loved his nearest relatives, and was beloved by them. He was neither forgetful nor inattentive to his friends. Nothing passed in the council of state, the great and indeed only spring of laws and government, that did not undergo a nice examination by the first consul. He heard the opinion of every one with patient attention. But he viewed every thing, at the same time, with his own eyes, and followed his own judgement. So magnanimous and courageous a spirit as Buonaparte could not have been deficient in clemency. The danger was, that he might have carried that divine virtue to the extremity of great imprudence. He yielded, therefore, to the necessity of punishing a small number of the conspirators against his life, noticed in our last volume, by death, and by sending about 80, who

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who were either their accomplices, or from whom his life was in danger, to French Guyana.

The forms of liberty being ſtill preſerved in France, even under the preſent dictatorſhip, it is cuſtomary, at ſtated periods, for the executive government, to lay before the legiſlative bodies an account of the ſtate of the nation: juſt as the king of Great Britain and Ireland takes a ſummary view of the ſtate of public affairs, foreign and domeſtic, in his ſpeeches at the meeting and riſing of parliament. A view of the republic, ſigned by the chief conſul, and counterſigned by the ſecretary of ſtate, was preſented to the legiſlative body on the 23d of November, 1801. The main drift of the paper was, to ſhew, that the arms and negotiations of the republic had been attended with luſtre and ſucceſs abroad, and that order and tranquillity had been reſtored at home. It concludes thus, "The Engliſh people have embraced peace with enthuſiaſm. The hatred of rivalſhip is extinguiſhed. The emulation of great actions, and uſeful enterprizes, will only remain. The government have made it their ambition to replace France in her natural relations with all nations. They will make it their glory to maintain their work, and to perpetuate a peace which ſhall conſtitute their happineſs, as well as the happineſs of humanity."

From this view of the conduct of Buonaparte, it might ſeem that he was born not only for the good of France, but of mankind. He was careful to encourage virtue, ſcience, and all good arts. In his own deportment he was exemplary. And, for what concerned France, in relation to foreign countries, he profeſſed an emulation only of "great actions and uſeful enterprizes—and was determined to perpetuate a peace which ſhould conſtitute the happineſs of the French, as well as that of humanity." This indeed would have been true glory. And there were not a few who entertained ſanguine hopes that Buonaparte would have exhibited as illuſtrious an example of moderation and juſtice, as he had done of ſkill, valour, and ſucceſs in war. But it ſoon appeared, that he was actuated ſtill by the vulgar ambition of domination; whether by means of arms, or political intrigue. He, probably, conceived that it was in this way only that he could ſatisfy the genius of France, which aimed conſtantly at being not only the miſtreſs, but the model of the world.

Of the ſtate of the world at this time, as it ſtood in relation to France, an account is given, not on the whole unfaithful, in the conſular repreſentation of great affairs juſt quoted, and to which we here refer our readers. *

As France took the lead, and affected the controul in the movements of nations, we have little to add, to what is there ſtated, in a brief ſurvey of the ſituation of Europe, November, 1801: the point of time, at which it will be proper to begin the hiſtory of 1802. It is into the hiſtory of that year, that the agitations in Germany reſpecting indemnities, the part that was taken by the few remaining independent powers on that ſubject, the convulſions in Switzerland, and the inſurrections and momen-

* See State Papers, p. 313.

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tary change of government in the French West-India colonies, naturally enter. These things may then be seen in their results, as well as their origin and progress, and some narrative may possibly be given of them without interruption, and not altogether devoid of interest.

As we have noticed the invasion of Hanover by the Prussians, and their declaration, that it was not their intention to keep it any longer than the disturbed and unsettled state of Germany might render this necessary, it becomes proper, for the satisfaction of our readers, to mention, that, having long resisted the solicitations of the elector, the king of Great Britain, to evacuate that territory, they at last did so, in November. As the king of Prussia had laid the states of the north of Germany under contribution, for the maintenance of his army of observation, which secured the neutrality of the country, during the war, so in like manner he maintained his army in Hanover, at the expense of Hanover. A prince, who can send his armies into the territories of his neighbours, and maintain them there, as long as he pleases, at their expense, bears a very near affinity, or resemblance, to the actual sovereign of those countries.

In Turkey in Europe, Passowan Oglou not only still held out, but gained several important advantages over the troops of the grand signior. The Janissaries of Belgrade revolted, confined, and afterwards murdered the bashaw, and governed that important city, with its environs, by their own authority. The Turkish bashaws were not uninfluenced by these examples of successful rebellion. They were, many of them, thereby encouraged in that spirit of refractoriness and disobedience to orders from the seraglio, which had appeared, for some length of time, in many of the provinces. The efforts of the Porte, to reduce the rebellious troops by force, were but feeble, and generally fruitless. Modes of conciliation were more successful, and procured at least a nominal and temporary submission. In short, the Turkish government, broken by internal dissention and discord, was strongly marked by that spirit of irresolution, concession, and occasional retraction of promises, and sallies of vigour, which usually mark the very last stage of declining empire.

Opposite and near to the Turkish shores, a spirit of insubordination, insurrection, and revolt, arose from a contrary cause: not from the debility of an old, but the audacity of the people under a new, government. In the republic of the Seven Isles, insurrections broke out in the islands of Corfu, Zante, and Cephalonia; different parties, which may be divided into oligarchists and republicans, contending for different forms of government. But these insurrections were soon over-awed by the combined authority of Russia, Turkey, and Great Britain.

In the East Indies, the affairs of Great Britain continued to prosper, and even to become more and more prosperous; if prosperity is to be measured by new acquisitions of territory, and extent of conquest. The Dutch Molucca islands were seized by the troops of our East-India company, without much resistance. New districts were wrested from the native princes, our allies. New schemes were formed, and new enterprizes undertaken for the extension of commerce.

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merce. Reſiſtance and revolt were ſubdued; and all Britiſh India wore a face of ſecurity and ſplendour; but ſadneſs and ſorrow reigned in the houſes or priſons of our princely allies. And in the ſeverities inflicted on them, numbers of their faithful ſubjects largely participated. Of inferior chiefs, polygars, independent proprietors of the ſoil, not a few were ſent to exile: a puniſhment to them worſe than death; as many of them proved, by throwing themſelves over-board into the ſea: while their wives and children on ſhore beat their breaſts, tore their hair, and rent the ſkies with their lamentations. But of the ſtate of Britiſh India in 1800 and 1801, we ſhall be enabled to give a more particular and authentic account, by the evidence that may be expected to come out in the courſe of the inveſtigation to be made in the approaching ſeſſion of parliament, reſpecting the conduct of the Eaſt-India company towards the nabob and family of Arcott.

CHRONICLE.

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CHRONICLE.

JANUARY.

1st. THE first day of the century, being also that of the union of the two kingdoms, was ushered in with ringing of bells, and the new imperial flag was hoisted at the tower, accompanied by the firing of guns there, and in the park.

Stafford. About 11 this day, a dreadful circumstance took place in this prison. One Mr. Theophilus Smith was mentioned in our last year's chronicle, p. 21, to have attempted to murder a Mr. Wainwright, of Liverpool, for which offence he was some time after apprehended, and committed to the county-gaol in this town for trial, under the Black Act, but his trial was put off at the last assizes. During his confinement his wife frequently visited him; and this morning, about 11 o'clock, she went to see him, but had not been in his room long before the keeper heard the reports of two pistols, one immediately after the other, and, on going into the room, discovered Mr. S. with his brains blown against the wall, and Mrs. S. on the floor, with a desperate wound in her back. It appeared, the horrid deed had been done by two double-barrelled pistols, which Mr. S. procured by some unknown means, and had first shot his wife and then himself. The unhappy lady is likely to recover. An infant daughter is left to lament this rash and dreadful act.

3d. This day the members of his majesty's council took the oaths as privy counsellors for the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; and his majesty received the great seal from the lord chancellor, and causing it to be defaced, presented to him a new great seal for the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. His majesty was also pleased to appoint, by proclamation, that, "The royal style and titles shall henceforth be accepted, taken, and used, in manner and form following; "that is to say, the same shall be expressed in the Latin tongue by these words: "Georgius Tertius, Dei Gratiâ, Britanniarum Rex, Fidei Defensor:" and in the English tongue by these words:— "George the Third, by the Grace of God, of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith."

14th. This day a proclamation was issued, for laying an embargo on all Russian, Danish, and Swedish vessels, in the several ports of this kingdom; which was afterwards effectually put in execution.

The rotation at Bow-street police office has been thus altered: 1st William

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liam Addington has retired on a penſion; Mr. Ford takes the lead; and Mr. Graham is tranſlated from Hatton-garden.—Days of ſitting: Monday and Thurſday, Mr. Ford; Tueſday and Friday, Mr. Bond; Wedneſday and Saturday, Mr. Graham.

15th. A general court of India proprietors confirmed a reſolution of the court of directors, granting to the marquis Welleſley an annuity of 5000l. for 20 years, to commence 1ſt Sept. 1798, the day on which the treaty with the Soubah of the Decan was concluded.

The marquis Welleſley, with the concurrence of the Eaſt India company, has eſtabliſhed a univerſity at Calcutta upon an extenſive ſcale, and regulated upon the moſt uſeful principles. It will contain profeſſors for the ancient languages, with the Perſian, Hindoo, &c. and for every branch of ſcience and literature. The profeſſors are to be obliged to read lectures in their reſpective departments.

26th. The caſe of the journeymen taylors, who have ſtood out ſo long for an increaſe of their wages, from 25s. to 30s. a week, came on to be heard before Alderman Brook Watſon (as *locum tenens* for the Lord Mayor), the Recorder, ſir John William Anderſon, and three other aldermen. The court having conſulted for ſome time, the Recorder proceeded to give judgment. He then ordered, that the journeymen ſhould be allowed 27s. a week; which is a riſe of 2s.; and double that ſum, or 54s. in caſe of a general mourning.

28th. Mr. Waddington, for engroſſing hops, was adjudged to pay a fine of 500l. to be impriſoned for one month, and till ſuch fine ſhall be paid.

31ſt. The ſale of fine wheaten bread is prohibited from this day: and brown bread will conſequently now be generally uſed.

The deplorable ſituation of the French priſoners of war in this country having been for ſome time known, to efface any unfavourable impreſſion which may have been made againſt the Engliſh government in this country, or on the continent of Europe, a long correſpondence on the ſubject has been publiſhed by miniſtry;—from which it appears, that the chief conſul refuſes to ſupply the priſoners with clothes, although we have paid for the clothing of all our countrymen priſoners in France.

Mr. Jefferſon is elected preſident of the United States of America.—The election was conducted with great warmth. The ballot was renewed thirty-one times during three ſucceſſive days. The thirty-ſecond time decided the election in favour of Mr. Jefferſon, to be preſident; and Mr. Burr, the next higheſt on the liſt, to be vice-preſident: the election was declared by a ſalute of 16 guns from the battery at Waſhington.

The Peterſburg court Gazette, of 30th December laſt, contained the following article:

"It is ſaid that his majeſty the emperor, perceiving that the European powers cannot come to an accommodation, and wiſhing to put an end to a war which has raged 11 years, has conceived the idea of appointing a place to which he will invite the other potentates, to engage together with himſelf, in ſingle combat, in liſts which ſhall be marked out; for which purpoſe they ſhall bring with them, to act as their eſquires, umpires, and heralds, their moſt

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moſt enlightened miniſters, and able generals; as Thugut, Pitt, and Bernſtorff. He will bring, on his part, counts Pahlen and Kutuſoff."

On this article the editor of the Hamburg newſpaper, after inſerting it by order of the Ruſſian miniſter there, adds the following obſervation on it, written by Kotzebue, the celebrated dramatiſt, and dictated to him verbatim by the emperor Paul:

"It is not known whether this rumour is to be depended upon; meanwhile it does not ſeem to be altogether without foundation, as it bears the mark of what has often been imputed to him."

DIED—At Berne, of the wounds he received from the French ſoldiers many months ſince, on their irruption into Switzerland, Lavater, the celebrated phyſiognomiſt: he had loſt the uſe of ſpeech, and even his underſtanding, for twenty-four hours before his deceaſe. The death of his ſiſter-in-law, to whoſe houſe he had cauſed himſelf to be carried in his laſt moments, ſeems to have accelerated his own. A few days before his end he dictated verſes, which were read in the preſence of his pariſhioners. He was an humble country clergyman, of good education, a warm fancy, and a natural acuteneſs of diſcernment. His perſpicuity of intellect was aſſociated with weakneſs of ſenſibility and imagination, not a little akin to that of J. J. Rouſſeau. In this ſituation, and with theſe qualities, he was accidentally led to turn his attention, in a particular manner, to the expreſſion of human ſentiment and character in the varied conformation of the countenance, head, and other parts of the frame, in the complexion, in the habitual motions and attitudes, in the temperament of health, &c. He perceived, that in all theſe not only tranſient paſſion, but even the more permanent qualities of character, are often very diſtinctly expreſſed. He carried his obſervations, in this way, much farther than any other perſon had before advanced. Succeſs inflamed his imagination, and he became an enthuſiaſt in the ſtudy of phyſiognomy. The opinions relative to it, which he propagated, were a medley of acute obſervation, ingenious conjecture, and wild reverie. They were divulged by him in converſation, and in a multitude of fragments, which he and his diſciples ſoon aſſembled into volumes. Novelty, myſtery, and the dreams of enthuſiaſm, have inexpreſſible charms for the multitude: every one was eager to learn to read his neighbour's heart in his face. In Switzerland, in Germany, in France, even in Britain, all the world became paſſionate admirers of the phyſiognomical ſcience of Lavater.—His books, publiſhed in the German language, were multiplied by many editions. In the enthuſiaſm with which they were ſtudied and admired, they were thought as neceſſary in every family as even the bible itſelf. A ſervant would, at one time, ſcarcely be hired till the deſcriptions and engravings of Lavater had been conſulted, in careful compariſon with the lines and features of the young man's or woman's countenance. The ſame ſyſtem was eagerly tranſlated into the French language: and, as the inſight into character and ſecret intention which it promiſed was infinitely grateful to female curioſity, all the pretenders to wit, taſte, and faſhion, among the lively women of France, ſoon became

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came diſtractedly fond of it. It was talked of as a ſcience ſuſceptible of mathematical certainty; and was applauded as capable of endowing man with the power of omniſcient intuition into the hearts and intentions of his fellows. After the firſt charm had been diſſolved, Lavater ſtill retained many diſciples. He continued to cultivate phyſiognomy, and was ſtill eagerly viſited by travellers paſſing near the place of his reſidence. By ſome of his adverſaries he was idly and unjuſtly accuſed as an inſidious Jeſuit, who, under the pretence of phyſiognomy, purſued ſome vaſt and miſchievous deſign. His theological opinions took a colour from his phyſiognomical ones; and he became the abhorrence of the orthodox. His private life was ſimple, and even devoutly pious. His wife had become, as well as himſelf, a great phyſiognomiſt. He was always an early riſer, and uſed never to take his breakfaſt till he had, in his own mind, earned it by the performance of ſome literary taſk. He was, at the dawn of the French revolution, not at all adverſe to it. Even when it began to penetrate into Switzerland, he did not paſſionately declare againſt it; but, when he ſaw his native country become a prey to the exceſſes of Jacobiniſm, his indignation was earneſtly rouſed, and he wrote ſome eloquent pieces againſt the oppreſſions of the French. He favoured the momentary counter-revolution. He was cruelly attacked and wounded by the French ſoldiers when that counter-revolution was ſuppreſſed. His death was in conſequence of thoſe wounds. It may revive his fame, and excite a new curioſity for the peruſal of his works.

At Venice, Cimarosa, the celebrated compoſer. The perſecution he underwent at Naples, for his political opinions, ſhortened his days.

FEBRUARY.

3d. A ſingular occurrence happened this day at Chipping Sudbury. A woman, named Hannah Palmer, lately wrote to a perſon in Briſtol, entreating that he or a Mr. C. would come to her, as ſhe had ſomething important to diſcloſe. They accordingly complied with her requeſt, and ſhe informed them that ſhe was in the deepeſt diſtreſs and horror of mind; that her father had died on the 24th of December laſt; and that, on the 26th following, ſhe dragged the body down the ſtairs, placed it on a wheelbarrow, and conveyed it in the night to the garden behind the houſe, where ſhe dug a grave, and buried it with her own hands. Information of the tranſaction was immediately given to the proper officers of the town, who ſent to Mr. Joyner, of Berkeley, the coroner. The body was taken up, and examined by two ſurgeons, who depoſed that it was their opinion the deceaſed died a natural death; after a cool, patient, and impartial inveſtigation, which occupied upwards of 10 hours. The Jury returned a verdict—That the deceaſed died by the viſitation of God: but a deteſtation of the extreme brutality of this unnatural and unfeeling daughter ſtill remained ſtrongly impreſſed on their minds.

Dublin. The extenſive ſhores on which the Dictator, a rich Liverpool ſhip, was unfortunately lately loſt, were covered with cotton, coffee, dye ſtuffs, puncheons of rum, and

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and chests of valuable papers. The chests were broke open. Unfortunately, as no magistrate resides in the neighbourhood of that part of the country, every thing was at the mercy of the people for three days. On the fourth day Mr. Marshall, the late high-sheriff of the county of Kerry, who lives 40 miles from that place, arrived at the shore, and at the risk of his life, which was often threatened, succeeded in recovering a quantity of valuable property, together with many important letters, addressed to the first commercial houses in Europe, which he immediately forwarded. He also recovered nearly 20,000l. in London bank-notes and bills. He took from one of the countrymen alone, who could not read, more than 12,000l. in bills; which it appears belonged to a Mr. James Frazer, a respectable merchant of Berbice, who was passenger, and one of the unfortunate sufferers. In consequence of a large reward offered by Mr. Marshall, Mr. Frazer's body was found, many miles from the wreck, by some country people, and being identified by the three surviving sailors, was decently interred in the church of Inch.

11th. Mr. Waddington received the judgement of the court, on a second conviction for forestalling hops, in the county of Kent, namely, a fine of 500l. and three months imprisonment.

Lady Pomfret exhibited articles of the peace against the earl. Her affidavit stated, that she was married in 1799, and was allowed 2,000l. per annum pin-money, which sum was secured upon part of her property, namely, 12,000l. in the three per cents.; that his lordship, to obtain possession of this money, and to force her to give up her annuity, had used her extremely ill; and that, in consequence of threats of personal violence, she had, in 1797, been obliged to execute a deed which affected her property to a large amount; that she had instituted a suit in the ecclesiastical court against the earl for adultery and cruelty, had been obliged to leave his house and reside with her relations, and now prayed the protection of the court.

12th. The earl of Pomfret appeared in court, and gave recognizance, himself to the amount of 5,000l. and two sureties of 2,500l. each, to keep the peace towards his wife, and to appear on the last day of Hilary term, 1802, to answer to the complaint preferred against him.

14th. The king was confined to the house by a severe cold, and on the 16th was affected by a fever, from which his majesty did not recover till March 12; when the physicians' bulletins ceased to be issued.

Manchester. A dreadful fire recently happened at the linen-yarn factory of Messrs. Kirby and Ellerwood: a number of poor persons concerned in the works, and living in the upper part of the premises, to the amount of forty, were either burnt to death, or killed in the fall, in endeavouring to escape. The whole of the premises were consumed by the conflagration.

Lately, as some workmen were setting down a fence, in the grounds of W. Wilshere, esq. near Hitchen, in Hertfordshire, they discovered two perfect human skeletons, which it is conjectured, from the place and position in which they lay, must be the remains of two persons who had

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been murdered; but no one has, within memory, been miſſed from the town or neighbourhood. About 32 years ſince, a purſe with two bank-notes was found by ſome children near the ſpot, and, though advertiſed, were never claimed; the purſe was thought to be ſtained with blood.

By the firſt report on the tunnel under the Thames, at Graveſend, the committee, after having inſpected the accounts, found that no obſtacle had occurred to prevent the work from being carried on and finiſhed, according to the original intention of the ſubſcribers; but that, as the work advances, more water may be expected to be met with, and conſequently the preſent power will be inſufficient; the committee therefore recommended that a ſteam engine be purchaſed or hired, as ſoon as the borings are completed.

From a ſecond report, it appears that, after the committee had aſſembled for the purpoſe of viewing Mr. Dodd's (the engineer) experiment of ſtopping out the lateral ſprings in the ſhaft, the depth of water in the ſhafts, carefully meaſured in preſence of the committee, before the operation commenced, was 4 feet 6 inches; in 5 minutes the water decreaſed 16 inches, in ten minutes it decreaſed 28 inches, and in 17 minutes the bottom became viſible. The committee, after waiting half an hour, could obſerve no viſible increaſe of the water.

DIED—In Guy's hoſpital, London, the once unfortunately celebrated Louiſa, or Lady of the Hay-ſtack; who, about eighteen years ago, was found to have taken up her reſidence under that ſhelter, in the pariſh of Bourton, near Briſtol, in a ſtate of melancholy derangement. She then appeared to be under twenty years of age. This very extraordinary woman, whoſe "Tale of Woe" was firſt told to the public by Miſs Hannah More, has naturally ceaſed, for a conſiderable time paſt, to intereſt the general curioſity. During ſeveral days of her abode under the hay-ſtack (from which ſhe at laſt permitted herſelf to be removed with reluctance), ſhe was viſited, and irregularly fed, by the country people, till the hand of ſympathy and compaſſion provided her better protection. As her name was unknown, ſhe was immediately diſtinguiſhed by that of Louiſa. During a conſiderable interval, in which ſhe afterwards remained in retirement, and before ſhe was admitted as incurable into the aſylum in which ſhe died, ſhe was chiefly ſupported by a voluntary ſubſcription, under the management of Miſs Hannah More, and her ſiſters. Thoſe active advocates of humanity, having loſt the pecuniary aſſiſtance of moſt others, continued to ſupply the extra wants and accommodations of the poor ſolitary ſtranger, at the expenſe of more than 10*l.* per annum, till her deceaſe. The ſame kind, and much the ſame degree, of mental derangement, which the "Tale of Woe" deſcribed, remained with Louiſa to the laſt. In her general conduct ſhe exhibited the various common evidences of the moſt confirmed inſanity; which, in addition to the contraction of her limbs, from her expoſure to cold in the open field, and from her future propenſity to remain inactive, rendered her an object of the ſtrongeſt pity. But her inſanity was uniformly remarkable in this, that, however diſordered and childiſh her affections and reſent-

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resentments, she never could be drawn into any explanation respecting her family, her connections, or her country; however affable and ungnarded she might sometimes appear, the moment any person put a question, directly or indirectly, relative to those topics, or made any allusion to them, however distant, she always changed countenance, assumed an air of suspicion, grew grave, and inflexibly silent—or would instantly touch on some other subject. From her accent, she was undoubtedly of German origin; but, though she knew little of English, she avoided conversing in any foreign language. Her manners and occasional movements indicated superior rank; and her frequent exclamations of *dear papa!* and *dear mamma!* in connection with ideas of equipage and ornaments, led to that conclusion. Many endeavours were used, on the continent, to trace her family, by circulating her description and story in the public prints, but without effect. The mystery of this silence was too remarkable, not to confirm the first opinion of her being a person above the common classes, with the additional probability of some unhappy and treacherous seduction. The conviction, that it is possible for any man, making pretensions to honour, or even of distinction from a brutal nature, so to betray, and so to abandon, in a foreign land, youth, beauty, the strongest sensibility, and perhaps the most engaging innocence, fills the mind with horror of the deed, and with shame and indignation for the character! Such profligacy, in this instance, may have been of foreign production.

MARCH.

2d. The state prisoners, who have for a considerable time past been confined in the tower, the house of correction in Coldbath-fields, Tothil-fields Bridewell, Shrewsbury, and other county gaols, were brought up to the duke of Portland's office, when most of them were liberated on their own recognizance. Among these were lord Cloncurry, Mr. Bonham, &c. One or two persons refused to enter any bail, insisting upon unconditional release, and were of course remanded. Such of them as had been brought from the country were allowed five pounds each to defray the expenses of their journey home, and the whole were treated with civility and attention. Col. Despard, Galloway, Lemaitre, and Hodgson, who refused to enter into recognizance, or give bail, were committed to Tothil-fields, as they insisted upon being delivered unconditionally to freedom, or brought to trial.

4th. Lord St. Vincent's claim to 9,674l. an eighth share of two Spanish ships, captured in Sept. 1799, by the Doris frigate, while cruising within the limits of his lordship's command, and under his orders, but to which lords Nelson and Keith conceived themselves entitled, was confirmed to his lordship by a decision of the court of king's bench.

8th. *Folkstone.* An immense portion of that stupendous eminence the cliff, bordering the sea, between this town and Sandgate, at about a quarter of a mile from hence, suddenly giving way, was precipitated below with great violence, and several smaller fragments have con-

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tinued falling at different times since, some slight fissures and separations of the surface being observed previous to their descent. The earth beneath the cliff seems to have sunk originally, as there is a conspicuous depression of it in some parts, and considerable intersections in others. The foot-path, from this place to Sandgate, went across the part which has tumbled down; and it was a very providential circumstance, that at the time it happened, which was a little after ten o'clock in the morning, no one happened to be upon the spot, as they must otherwise have been dashed to pieces, by falling from an elevation of several hundred feet.

Philadelphia. The undertaking for bringing water from the Schuylkill, to be distributed in pipes for the uses of domestic œconomy in this city, has been completed.

In consequence of a late conspiracy of the slaves in Virginia, it has been found necessary to employ an additional military force to guard the safety of their masters.

14th. The following letter was this day addressed to the printer of a morning paper by lord Camelford, in consequence of some reports in circulation of the person likely to be nominated by him to the borough of Old Sarum, in case Mr. J. H. Tooke should be declared ineligible to sit in the house of commons.

"Mr. Editor, it is with much reluctance that I feel myself called upon to convey sentiments to the public through the medium of a newspaper; but, since the subject on which I wish to explain myself is not of a nature to be brought forward in a more appropiate place, I must hope for the indulgence of the public to believe, that it is not without a considerable sacrifice of my own private feelings that I have at length yielded to what I conceive a public duty. A report, as preposterous as unfounded, has lately found its way abroad, stating, that I meditated a gross and indecent insult upon the dignity of the legislature, by using an influence I am supposed to possess, for the purpose of introducing an improper character into the formation of its body. As long as this insinuation was confined to individuals, and only affected myself, I saw no reason for departing from my general mode of treating such idle fabrications with silence and contempt; but, since persons have been found credulous enough to endeavour to stamp this idle story with a relative sanction, which it would not have otherwise found, it becomes me to set the public right, by solemnly assuring them, that no such idea was ever in contemplation for one moment, and that I am at a loss to discover how the rumour originated; as, so far from being capable of harbouring a wish to add at this moment to the embarrassments of an unhappy and dejected people, it would be the pride and glory of my heart (if I had the power) to place such persons in situations of responsibility as, by their talents and integrity, might preserve our laws, our government, and constitution. CAMELFORD."

Several barrels of gunpowder, in the stores of Messrs. M'Intosh, Inglis, and Wilson, in the centre of the town of Inverness, by some accident blew up, spreading devastation round them; some houses have been razed to their foundation, others unroofed, and not one that has escaped some injury. Fragments of the buildings were driven a great distance, three

women

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women and two children were buried in the ruins; and two Miss Frasers, of Fanellan, unfortunately passing, one was killed on the spot, and the other so desperately wounded, as to render her death a desirable event. Many other people were wounded, but not dangerously. The shock was felt many miles round.

17th. A general court of proprietors was held at the India-house; when, in consideration of the important benefits which have resulted to the company from the services of Mr. Dundas, as president of the board of controul, it was, with the exception of two persons, unanimously resolved, "that he be requested to accept, during the existence of the company's present limitation of their exclusive trade, of an annuity of 2000l. to be paid to him, his executors, or assigns."

19th. A general court of proprietors of bank-stock met for the purpose of declaring a half year's dividend to the 5th April next; when it was resolved, such was the improved condition of the company, that a bonus of 5l. in navy 5 per cents. should be paid on each 100l. stock, in addition to the annual dividend of 7l. per cent.

20th. His majesty's ship Invincible, of 74 guns, captain Rennie, has been most unfortunately lost by running aground on the Norfolk coast. The ridge of sand is called the Hamondsburg, or Hippisburg, and is situated about 14 miles from Winterton. The number of lives lost amount to upwards of 400, including the captain and the greater part of the officers; 195 only, out of the whole of the crew and passengers, having been saved from the wreck. Rear-admiral Totty, who was proceeding in the Invincible to join the North-sea fleet, is among the survivors. He arrived in town yesterday afternoon, and immediately waited on the lords of the admiralty.

The new drying-house belonging to the powder-works of Messrs. Harvey, of Battle in Sussex, containing about eight hundred weight of gunpowder, blew up with a terrible explosion; and such was the force of the powder, that the building, though of brick, was shattered to atoms. One poor man, who happened to be in the house at the time, was unfortunately killed. His scattered remains were afterwards found amongst the ruins, and exhibited a shocking spectacle. How the accident happened, as there were no fires in the stoves, no one can tell.

At Winchester assizes the principal trial was that of lieut. Stapleton, of the 20th regiment, for shooting, in a duel, ensign Grainger. The court was extremely crowded, and the trial continued eight hours, when the jury returned a verdict of manslaughter.

Died—25th. Paul I. Emperor of all the Russias, &c. at 4 o'clock this morning. He was 45 years and 6 months old; he reigned only 4 years and 4 months, as he ascended the throne, Nov. 17, 1796. He was twice married; first, on Oct. 10, 1773, to Natalia-Alexievna, of Hesse-Darmstadt; he was left a widower on the 26th of April, 1776, and married, Oct. 13, the same year, Sophia Dorothea, of Wurtemberg-Stutgard, born Oct. 25, 1759. By this marriage he had four sons and five daughters. The sons are, Alexander, born Dec. 23, 1777, married Oct. 9, 1795, to Maria Louisa Elizabeth Alexierna, of Baden, born Jan. 4, 1779. 2d. Constantine, born

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born May 8, 1779, married Feb. 26, 1796, to Julia Henrietta of Saxe-Cobourg, born Sept. 23, 1781. 3. Nicholas, born July 2, 1795. 4. Michael, born Feb. 8, 1798. The daughters are, 1. Alexandra, born Jan. 7, 1785, married, Feb. 20, 1799, to Ferdinand Archduke of Auſtria, died in child-bed March 16, 1801. 2. Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784, married, May 19, 1799, to Frederick Louis, Hereditary Prince of Mecklenberg Schwerin. 3. Mary, born Feb. 5, 1786. 4. Catharine, born May 21, 1788. And Anne, born Jan. 7, 1795.—Alexander ſucceeds his father; the oath of fidelity was taken to him, with the uſual formalities, on March 25, the ſame day on which his father died.

The circumſtances attending the death of this monarch have been ſtated, generally, with truth, but with incorrectneſs in the details. The following particulars we have heard in a way that leaves no doubt of their accuracy. The public muſt ſtill be deſirous of being informed reſpecting an event which has led to ſuch great changes in Europe, moſt happily for this country.

Paul had diſguſted all ranks—his temper and tyranny had left him no friends—the favourite of to-day knew he might be the victim of to-morrow—commerce was at a ſtand, and the trading claſs ſuffered ſeverely—the very party about his perſon, who were daily receiving his favours, were ſo conſcious of their danger, that they were the firſt to promote the plan for dethroning him. A conſiderable time before his death, this party reſolved to force him to abdicate the throne, and to retire far from the ſeat of government. This fact was known to ſeveral well-informed perſons in London, and hence aroſe the eagerneſs with which his famous challenge, when it firſt arrived here, was regarded as a preliminary to his being depoſed. The French papers have aſſerted that his death was plotted by the Engliſh government, having for their agent at St. Peterſburg an Engliſh colonel. Such a charge is as falſe as it is infamous.

Paul, about the middle of March, gave his miniſter a warrant for baniſhing or impriſoning his wife, the empreſs, and two ſons, Alexander and Conſtantine. The miniſter did not put this order into execution; but went to the ſons to inform them of it, ſaying, "Your father is ruining the country and himſelf, he will now deſtroy you; is this to be borne?" The ſons owned themſelves ſenſible their father was ruining the country, and drawing on general confuſion; but they could not interfere, they muſt obey. The miniſter ſuggeſted that ſomething muſt be done to ſtop him in his courſe. The ſons ſaid they could adviſe nothing, and would take no part, but would leave it to the miniſters to purſue ſuch meaſures as were beſt calculated to promote the intereſts of the empire. Upon this the miniſter called a ſecret meeting of the court party; conſiſting of the miniſters, military commanders, officers of ſtate, and chief nobility, amounting in all to nearly forty perſons. They dined together, that the bottle might give them courage perhaps; and the miniſter propoſed that the emperor Paul ſhould be deſired to abdicate the throne; that he ſhould retire to a palace at a diſtance from St. Peterſburg, where he ſhould be protected, and paſs his life in private. This propoſal, to which all parties had agreed individually before, was unanimouſly adopted; and the

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the party proceeded in a body, late in the evening of the 24th, to the emperor's palace, to put their project into force.

The emperor Paul had heard of a plot to dethrone him, and had for a conſiderable time lived in a ſtate of the greateſt alarm. He ſtationed the moſt faithful guards at the avenues of his palace, and took every precaution againſt ſurpriſe. The guards challenged the party when they approached; the party gave the watch-word, but that would not ſatisfy the guards; at laſt their own commanders came forward from among the party, when of courſe the whole were allowed to paſs. They did not go up a back ſtair-caſe, as it has been reported, but went up the grand entrance, to the emperor's bed-room, knowing that was the hour at which he would be retired. At the bed-room door, a truſty huſſar was ſtationed, who refuſed the party permiſſion to paſs on any terms, and a violent ſtruggle enſued, in which the huſſar was overcome. They then entered the bed-room, and to their utter aſtoniſhment perceived the emperor had left the bed. They ſaw nothing of him in the room, and now concluded their deſign had wholly failed, that it could not be concealed, and that their lives muſt pay for their attempt. But in ſearching around, the emperor was diſcovered ſtanding behind a ſcreen, juſt as he had leaped out of bed, alarmed by the ſtruggle made by the huſſar, and apprehenſive of ſome plot. The party now told him the object of their viſit, ſtated to him the acts of injuſtice and tyranny of which he had been guilty, the ruin he was bringing upon the nation, and the general diſcontent at his conduct, concluding, by recommending that he ſhould abdicate the throne in favour of his ſon Alexander, and preſenting for his ſignature an inſtrument to that effect. Paul trembled, confeſſed his miſconduct, admitted the truth of all with which he had been reproached; but promiſed to act with the ſtricteſt propriety, and juſt do as they ſhould direct in future, if he was permitted to reign. His abdication, however, was inſiſted upon, and he was conſenting, when, among others, count Z. whom he had ſtripped of all the honours and emoluments beſtowed by the empreſs Catherine, began to reproach him in very ſevere terms for his perſonal ill treatment. Paul, who diſliked this perſon much, replied with bitterneſs and rage, and a violent altercation enſued, when count Z. who is a very athletic man, lifted a chair, and ſtriking Paul with the corner point of the ſeat of it a ſevere blow on the forehead, the emperor fell ſenſeleſs to the ground.

This was a circumſtance neither foreſeen or provided againſt; and the whole party were greatly at a loſs how to proceed. After ſuch a breach, it was thought it would be impoſſible to cajole the emperor into abdication; it was dreaded, that nothing could blind his rage if he recovered. Having gone ſo far, it was deemed neceſſary for their own ſafety to go farther; and it was agreed, that the emperor ſhould be put to death. This, however, it was neceſſary to do, leaving as little appearances of violence as poſſible. He was ſtrangled, trampled upon, and bruiſed, for ſeveral hours, till it was quite certain he was dead. His body was then laid in the bed, and in the morning a phyſician was called in, to certify that he died of an apoplexy.

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But the revolutionary party did not finish the business completely like masters. They left the hussar at the door, to overhear, and partly witness all that passed, and they allowed him to escape. If he had been put to death also, the truth would not now be so well known; perhaps it might have been for ever concealed from the public. But the hussar went forth, and whispered what he knew; the story got abroad, and the empress, Paul's widow, hearing it, sent for the hussar, and took him under her protection.—Such is human ambition, or rather vanity, that the empress, who might have rejoiced at being freed from a husband who neglected her for the worst of favourites, and was even going to banish her far from his throne, no sooner found her greatness eclipsed by the loss of her lord, and that she was to sink into the antiquated, the neglected character of an empress dowager, than she pretended the most violent grief, threw herself in public over the corpse of Paul, caressed the hussar, published his tale in every quarter, and took all possible steps to stir up a party against the government to espouse her cause. In this she has had some success. In consequence, Alexander has sent count Z. into exile, has dismissed the minister, and has taken every step to shew his respect for his father's memory; but we have seen, even by the public accounts, that a melancholy, a suspicion, and an uneasiness, constantly hang about him. He lives in dread, notwithstanding the wisdom and humanity of his government.

In addition to the above particulars, and since they were written, we have heard that it is impossible to describe the joy of the people of St. Petersburg, on the news of Paul's death. In ecstacy, transported, they seemed as if reprieved from sentence of death. This spirit prevailed so much, that the shewmen about the streets represented the whole circumstances, with explanations and names, more freely than we have described in the above account, till an order was issued by government, forbidding persons to talk publicly of the emperor Paul's death. Count Z. who carried the first news to Moscow, was waited on first by a deputation of the nobles, and next of the merchants, congratulating him in transports of joy, and bestowing on him the richest presents.—Many letters, it is said, were found among the papers of the Turkish valet, the favourite of the emperor Paul, who kept madame Chevalier, announcing the plot for deposing Paul. One of these letters had been sent the day before his death, giving the most minute particulars of what was to be done. This letter was seized among Kutusoff's papers, unopened! The empress dowager went to the late coronation at Moscow, and did every thing by her conduct to excite pity for her situation and for Paul's fate, but to no purpose.

APRIL.

4th. A female swindler, of the name of Robinson, lately resided at Blackheath, where she had the address to defraud various tradesmen of property to the amount of 20,000l. and upwards. This impostor had a boarding-school on Croom's-hill two years, during which time she represented herself as heiress to several large

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large estates. In May last she sent to Mr. Creasy, a tradesman at Greenwich, whom she informed that her uncle, Alexander Stuart Robinson, of Fascally, was dead, and begged he would accompany her to an attorney, to arrange matters preparatory to her taking possession. A few days after Mr. Creasy lent her 2000l. until the settlement of her affairs at Fascally. She took a house in the Paragon, which was in an unfinished state, and engaged bricklayers, painters, and carpenters, to finish the premises in the most expensive style; while these improvements were going forward, Miss Robinson set up three carriages; and the latter end of June set off for Brighton with four horses and out-riders. On her return, Miss Robinson went to Hatchett, and desired him to make her an elegant chariot, with silver mouldings and raised coronets of the same, by the queen's birth-day, as her cousin, Mr. Secretary Dundas, intended to introduce her at court. Mr. Oakley, of Bond-street, was also applied to, to furnish the house for 4000l. Things then went on swimmingly; the drawing-room was painted in water-colours, the walls in landscape. The looking-glasses came to 1100l.; the principal bed was 500l. and every other article suitably magnificent. During the time the furnishing of the house was going forward, Mr. Oakley requested, when half the order had been completed, the sum of 1000l. Miss Robinson felt herself hurt, and said, if he had any doubts of having his money when her affairs were settled at Fascally, he might apply to her sister lady Paget, or to her cousin the bishop of London, or to sir Richard Hill. Upon these bold assertions Mr. Oakley proceeded with the order, but, when nearly completed, he waited upon the bishop of London and sir Richard Hill, who said they had no farther knowledge of Miss Robinson than by a card which a person of that name had been in the habit of leaving at the houses of persons of distinction. Upon this discovery, in February, Mr. Oakley took out a writ, and with proper officers, his own men, and several carts, went down to Blackheath, and laid in wait till 9 o'clock, when the carriage came home, but no Miss Robinson. From this circumstance it appeared that she had received intimation of what was going forward, and would not return. Mr. Oakley, finding he could not take the body, got into the house, and disrobed the mansion of its furniture by 6 o'clock the next morning. At 9 o'clock in the morning came in an execution, under virtue of which the remaining part of the property was sold by auction on the premises. Miss Robinson was traced into Cornwall, and soon after was apprehended at Huntingdon, and lodged in the county gaol, where she remains in a state of extreme poverty, having squandered all the fruits of her misapplied ingenuity. In person she is of the middle size, and is remarkably ordinary. From her prison she has issued a ridiculous and unintelligible vindication of her conduct.

A shark, 28 feet in length and 10 feet in circumference, was lately caught in a fishing-seine near the bathing-house at Abbotsbury, in Dorsetshire. His tail, when spread, measured 8 feet, the fins 4 feet, and it is supposed to weigh 15 tons. It was entangled in the mackarel-seines, destroyed by the crew of the Greyhound cutter, who fired on it, and afterwards towed to the village of Portland. Fourteen horses were employed

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ployed to draw the monſter up the bank and on ſhore, where a booth was erected over it. Before he was quite dead he appeared mottled like a common dog-fiſh.

Two life boats have been finiſhed by Mr. Greathead of Shields, one of which has been conveyed to the ſtation of Bawdſey-cliffe, and the other to Loweſtoffe, in Suffolk; and, from their great utility in ſaving the lives of ſeamen in tempeſtuous weather, they will, in all probability, ſoon become general on the coaſts of this iſland.

13th. The trial of ſir Harry Browne Hayes, for forcibly carrying off Miſs Pike, the rich quaker heireſs of Cork, with intent to marry her, came on at Cork this day at 9 o'clock in the morning, and continued till 10 at night. The jury brought in a verdict guilty, but recommended him to mercy.

22d. Three men were committed to Hereford gaol for trial, charged with robbing and wounding Mr. Stallard, of Moor-court. About one o'clock the ruffians broke into the houſe, and proceeding to Mr. Stallard's room, beat him until they conceived him to be dead; they then went into the apartments occupied by the female ſervants, who they compelled to attend them with lights to ſhew where the plate, linen, &c. were depoſited, and afterwards to aſſiſt in packing it up, when they eſcaped without alarming the men ſervants, ſix of whom lay in the out offices. The robbers were ſhortly purſued, and taken in bed at a public-houſe near Roſs, with all the property in their poſſeſſion.

25th. The powder-mills at Waltham-abbey blew up with a dreadful exploſion. Nine perſons loſt their lives.

26th. About 8 in the evening a mob aſſembled before a houſe in Wych-ſtreet, formerly the Queen of Bohemia tavern (but now ſuppoſed to be unoccupied), in conſequence of ſome boys who had been at play in the paſſage, declaring they ſaw ſome perſons through the key-hole employed in cutting up human bodies. The mob, having increaſed, at length broke into the houſe, in which they found ſeveral human bodies partly diſſected, one body of a man which appeared to have been not long dead, with that of an infant not four months old, untouched, and ſeveral tubs with human fleſh, &c. The ſtench was ſo great, that many were glad to return without viewing the diſguſting ſcene, and many who went in were ſeized with ſickneſs. Notwithſtanding it was explained to the mob, that the houſe had been for ſome time uſed as an anatomical theatre, they were ſo enraged as to proceed to deſtroy the houſe; but a party of Bow-ſtreet officers arriving, at length ſucceeded in reſtoring the peace, to the great ſatisfaction of the neighbourhood, who had been much alarmed at an idea that the mob would in their rage ſet fire to the houſe. The ſurgeons, who were in the houſe, made their eſcape by a back way, leaving ſeveral of their inſtruments behind them. This is the houſe in which a committee of the Correſponding Society was ſeized three years ago. It was formerly a noble palace, and the ſpacious but gloomy and deſolate appearance of the apartments added to the horror of the ſcene. An examination into the circumſtances then took place before Mr. Juſtice Ford; the reſult of it ſufficiently pointed out how theſe bodies came to be depoſited in the houſe, it having clearly appeared

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that they were used for the purposes of dissection. By the orders of Mr. Ford a coroner's inquest was held on the bodies; and their verdict fully coinciding with what was stated on the examination, the mob were satisfied with the explanation, and were induced quietly to disperse. The bodies were buried in St. Clement's church-yard.

27th. The long depending cause between the parishioners of St. Gregory, London, and the warden and minor canons of St. Paul's, was decided in the Court of Exchequer, in favour of the latter. The parishoners contended, that from time immemorial, previous to the 37th of Henry VIII. down to the year 1795, they had been accustomed to pay no more than about 90l. as a composition for tythes, and that therefore they were not within the provision of the act. The jury, however, decided, that they were within the statute of Henry VIII. and consequently liable to the payment of 2s. 9d. in the pound, making in the gross about 1,300l. per annum, of which six years arrears are due.

28th. Two young women, named Lamb and Mothershall, were committed to Lincoln gaol, charged with the murder of Mr. S. Glew, of Epsworth, and robbing him of property to the amount of 40l. Mr. G. had an axe, which they seized from his hand, and beat him with it on the head until they fractured his scull, when they threw the body into a ditch.

Anne Clarke was last week executed at Ruthyn, for the murder of her illegitimate female child. She held the infant's face in a pool of water until she became suffocated, when she buried her in the mud. This wretched woman delayed execution for several months by an unfounded plea of pregnancy.

Some convicts lately escaped from Botany Bay; and after extraordinary perils and hardships, reached Hindostan, and endeavoured to proceed up the Godavery, with intent to proceed to Hyderabad; but were intercepted by a party of sepoys, and conducted to Madras, where, having confessed the circumstances of their escape, they were ordered to be sent back to the colony by the first opportunity.

Parliament has passed a vote for the erection of two monuments in St. Paul's cathedral, to the memories of captains Riou and Moss, who so bravely fell in the action off Copenhagen.

DIED—17th. At his house in Pall Mall, in his 91st year, William Heberden, M. D. senior fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and F. R. S. and S. A. He was educated in the grammar-school in St. Saviour's church-yard, and was many years fellow of St. John's college, Cambridge, where he was admitted in December, 1724, being then only 15 years of age. He proceeded B. A. 1728; M. A. 1732; M. D. 1739; and practised physic at Cambridge till about the year 1750, when he removed to London, and continued a considerable time before his talents were discovered; so long that, almost weary with solicitude, he was on the point of returning to end his days at Cambridge. But happily, he steadily persevered, and soon shone forth in full lustre. From a thorough conviction of its public utility, Dr. Heberden was one of the earliest subscribers to the Humane Society, and in 1778 was elected vice-president of that excellent institution. To this worthy physician the widow of

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of the celebrated Dr. Conyers Middleton bequeathed her husband's MSS. from which Dr. Heberden, in 1761, obliged the learned world with a curious tract, intituled, "Dissertationis de servili Medicorum conditione Appendix," &c.; with a short but elegant advertisement of his own, which may be seen in the "Anecdotes of Mr. Bowyer." In 1763, a most valuable edition of the "Supplices Mulieres" of Euripides, with the notes of Mr. Markland, was printed entirely at the expense of Dr. Heberden. He wrote the epitaph in Dorking church on Mr. Markland, who had bequeathed to him all his books and papers. To Dr. Heberden Mr. Bowyer bequeathed his "little cabinet of coins, a few books specifically, and any others which the doctor might choose to accept." Dr. H.'s other publications were, "ANTIΘHPIAKA, an Essay on Mithridatium and Theriaca, 1745," 8vo. In the Medical Transactions of London, vol. I. Remarks on the Pump-water of London; Observations on the Ascarides; Account of the remarkably good Effects of common Salt in an extraordinary Case of Worms; Observations on Nyctalopia; On the Chicken-pox; Account of the epidemical Cold in June and July, 1767; Queries on medical Subjects. In vol. II. Observations on the hectic Fever; Remarks on the Pulse; Some Account of the Angina Pectoris; Of the noxious Effects of some Fungi; Queries on medical Subjects. In vol. III. Farther Account of the Angina Pectoris; Method of preparing the Ginseng Root in China; On damp Linen. In a "Letter to Lord Kenyon, relative to some conduct of the College of Physicians of London," given to friends, but not sold, in which that learned body has received a thundering Philippic, the character of this truly respectable veteran is thus delineated by Dr. Wells: "Many of our physicians have no doubt received little injury from the causes of the corruption of character, to which they have been exposed; and some few may have escaped their influence altogether. One of these few, Dr. William Heberden, I must conclude to have been well known to your lordship, from the eulogy which you pronounced upon him during the trial of Dr. Stanger's cause. He was probably, indeed, the only physician with whom you were intimately acquainted; and hence, from the natural error of attributing to a whole species the properties of its only individual we have seen, you might imagine that he possessed his many virtues in common with the rest of his class. But Dr. Heberden, my lord, stands, in a manner, alone in his profession. No other person, I believe, either in this or any other country, has ever exercised the art of medicine with the same dignity, or has contributed so much to raise it in the estimation of mankind. A contemplation of his excellencies, therefore, can afford little help towards obtaining a just notion of the general worth of physicians. In speaking of a mole-hill, we would not employ terms that had relation to the immensity of a mountain. Were I, my lord, possessed of talents adequate to the undertaking, I should here endeavour to describe at full length the character of that illustrious man. In this attempt I should first mark his various and extensive learning, his modesty in the use of it, and his philosophical distrust of human opinion in science, however

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however sanctioned by time or the authority of great names. I should then exhibit him in the exercise of his profession, without envy or jealousy; too proud to court employment, yet undervaluing his services after they were performed; unwearied, even when a veteran in his art, in ascertaining the minutest circumstances of the sick, who placed themselves under his care, taking nothing in their situation for granted that might be learned by inquiry, and trusting nothing of importance that concerned them to his memory. To demonstrate his greatness of mind, I should next mention his repeatedly declining to accept those offices of honour and profit at the British court, which are regarded by other physicians as objects of their highest ambition, and are therefore sought by them with the utmost assiduity. I should afterwards take notice of his simple yet dignified manners, his piety to God, his love for his country, and his exemplary discharge of the duties of all the private relations in which he stood to society; and I should conclude by observing, that his whole life had been regulated by the most exquisite prudence, by means of which his other virtues were rendered more conspicuous and useful, and, whatever failings he might as a human being possess, were either shaded or altogether concealed. After my description was finished, I should think it proper to say that I had never been acquainted with Dr. Heberden, and consequently could neither be dazzled by the splendour of his virtues, from approaching them too nearly, nor influenced in my opinion concerning them by benefits he had already conferred upon me; and that standing, as he does, upon the verge of this state of existence, ready to wing his flight to another of glory; his ear must now be closed to the voice of flattery, had he ever listened to that siren, or were I base enough to solicit her aid, in the foolish expectation of receiving from him some future reward." He married Mary, daughter of Francis Wollaston, and grand-daughter of the author of "The Religion of Nature delineated," by whom he had two sons, William, M. D. and John, educated at St. John's college, Cambridge; B. A. 1775, M. A. 1778. Thomas Heberden, M. D. (physician at Madeira) was brother to the late worthy Dr. William Heberden.

MAY.

1st. The branch of canal from Buckingham to the Grand Junction Canal was opened this day, with great rejoicings. A barge, with the marquis of Buckingham, Mr. Praed, and Mr. Selby (gentlemen of the committee), and Mr. Box, the treasurer, accompanied by a large party of ladies and gentlemen, and a band of music, led the way to a procession of 12 barges, laden with coals, slate, and a variety of merchandize; upon their entrance into the basin at Buckingham, they were saluted by the firing of several pieces of cannon. A numerous party were handsomely entertained by the marquis of Buckingham, at the Cobham Arms inn, on this occasion; and a liberal supply of beer was given to the populace. This branch of canal, nine miles and a quarter in length, has been completed in about eight months, and will secure to an extensive district of country the most substantial benefits.

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14th. A court of common council was held at Guildhall.—The committee of ways and means reported, that the city's income for the laſt year was 92,062l. 9s. 8d.; and that its expenditure was 87,828l. 7s. 4d.; balance, being the city's nett income, 4,234l. 2s. 4d. Upon which the report ſtated, that the city was to pay to the commiſſioners for income the ſum of 423l.

18th. This day, at four o'clock, the ceremony of laying the firſt ſtone of a building, to be erected in Capel-court, for the tranſaction of buſineſs in the public funds, was laid by William Hammond, eſq. chairman of the committee of managers, in the preſence of the proprietors of the undertaking. A proceſſion was made to the ſpot; and the ſtone being laid, Mr. Hammond, in a ſhort and neat ſpeech, announced the purpoſe of the building, wiſhed proſperity to the members, and among other things ſtated, that an engraving on copper was depoſited under the ſtone.

20th. This day commenced, at Garraway's, the ſale of Mr. Benfield's eſtates. The noble manſion-houſe and park, containing 409 acres, was knocked down at 25,500l. (excluſive of timber and fixtures) to be taken at a valuation. The farms were judiciouſly divided into deſirable lots, and more than thirty years purchaſe was bid for all. The whole amount was more than 180,000l. A former ſale not having been ratified, the preſent one was made by order of the court of exchequer, under an extent, and produced 13,000l. more than the former prices. It appears ſince, that the whole eſtate was now again bought in, it not being thought that enough was bid for it.

21ſt. His majeſty, accompanied by the queen and two of the princeſſes, arrived at Buckingham-houſe, from Kew; and after his Majeſty had taken ſome refreſhment, a privy council was held (the firſt ſince the king's illneſs); at which ſir Richard Pepper Arden kiſſed hands on being appointed lord chief juſtice of the common pleas, as did alſo ſir William Grant, on ſucceeding to the ſituation of maſter of the rolls.

Parliament has voted the erection of a monument in St. Paul's Cathedral to the memory of ſir Ralph, and lady Abercromby is to be created a peereſs, with remainder to her two eldeſt ſons, and an annual penſion of 2,000l.

At a recent confirmation by the biſhop of Carliſle, at Hull, a farmer from Holderneſs attended with ſeventeen of his ſons and daughters to be confirmed.

The following ſingular paſſage we have extracted from one of ſir William Petty's Eſſays on Political Arithmetic, ed. 1669.

London, he ſays, doubles its inhabitants in 40 years, and all England in 360 years. That in the year 1682 there would be about 670,000 ſouls in London; and about 7,400,000 in all England and Wales; in which there are about 28,000,000 acres of profitable land. That the growth of London muſt be at its greateſt height in the year 1800, and muſt ſtop before the year 1842, when it will contain 10,718,880 ſouls, but the population of the reſt of the country will be no more than 10,917,889.

25th. *Dublin.* The earl of Hardwicke, our new lieutenant-general, arrived here this morning. He was received by the corporation of this city, and, attended by a ſquadron of dragoons, proceeded to the caſtle. Upon his arrival there he was introduced

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troduced in form to his excellency marquis Cornwallis, who received him ſitting under the canopy of ſtate in the preſence-chamber. The council ſitting, his lordſhip's commiſſion was read, and the oath being adminiſtered to him, he was inveſted with the collar of the order of St. Patrick, and received the ſword of ſtate from the marquis Cornwallis.

28th. At the ſeſſions-houſe, on Clerkenwell-green, the coachman and two footmen of a gentleman of great reſpectability were ſentenced to one month's impriſonment, and a fine of 5l. each, on the proſecution of John Free, eſq. for wilfully driving their maſter's carriage againſt that of Mr. Free, in their attempting to break into the rank at the opera-houſe, on the 24th of March.

29th. The rev. Gilbert Wakefield was liberated from his confinement of two years in Dorcheſter gaol, for his anſwer to the biſhop of Llandaff's pamphlet on the income-tax.

30th. At eight o'clock this morning a perſon leaped off the centre arch of Blackfriars-bridge into the Thames, to decide a trifling wager of five ſhillings, and had the good fortune to eſcape unhurt.

Died—Of the wounds received in a hard fought battle with the French in Egypt, general Sir Ralph Abercrombie, K. B. The firſt commiſſion this able officer bore was as cornet of the 3d dragoon guards, into which he entered on the 25th of May, 1756, and gradually roſe, in 1787, to the rank of major-general. On the breaking out of the war he ſerved with the duke of York in the Netherlands; and in Auguſt, 1795, ſucceeded ſir Charles Grey as commander in chief of the Weſt India iſlands; on his return from whence, in January, 1797, he was raiſed to the rank of lieutenant-general. His next ſervice was to quell the rebellion in Ireland, and, in 1799, he had the ſecond command in the unſucceſsful expedition againſt Holland; and laſtly, he was inveſted with the chief command of the army deſtined to diſpoſſeſs the French of Egypt.

JUNE.

1ſt. The embargo was taken from off the Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh veſſels in our ports.

3d. A criminal information againſt G. W. Thelluſſon, eſq. for perjury, was tried at Guildhall; the caſe was ſhortly this: Mr. R. Coppinger borrowed 1757l. from the defendant, and aſſigned the title-deeds of a ſhip as a collateral ſecurity, and under this aſſignment Mr. Thelluſſon, on a queſtion in the admiralty court, ſwore the veſſel was his property. The indictment was founded on the preſumption, that Mr. Coppinger, having repaid this ſum of 1757l. previous to this oath, the property had reverted to him: but it appearing to the jury, that in all aſſignments of chattel intereſt it is expreſſly ſtated that there ſhall be a re-aſſignment, and that till that is done the property is veſted in the mortgagee, and Mr. Coppinger failing to ſubſtantiate any of his allegations of perjury ariſing from the ſtatement of various other accounts with Mr. Thelluſſon, the jury, without heſitation, acquitted him.—An action to recover damages for a malicious proſecution, founded on the foregoing, was next tried. The rectitude of Mr. Thelluſſon's conduct was very clearly eſtabliſhed;

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and Lord Kenyon characteriſed the proſecution inſtituted by Mr. Coppinger as malicious, and devoid of foundation. Mr. Coppinger conducted his own defence, and at great length addreſſed the jury, who, after a ſhort deliberation, found a verdict for the plaintiff, damages 1000l.

The foundation for the building of the bank of Scotland was this day laid in Bank-ſtreet, Edinburgh, by a committee of the directors.

10th. About four this morning a dreadful fire broke out in the ſugar-houſe belonging to Meſſrs. Ferrers and Warren, in Wood-ſtreet, which entirely conſumed the ſame; but, from the timely exertions of the firemen, and the engines being well ſupplied with water, it was prevented from communicating to a cooperage adjoining, and ſeveral old houſes and wooden buildings by which it was ſurrounded.

13th. This day, in the court of king's bench, one Spence, a poor inſane, though miſchievous bookſeller, was brought up to receive judgement upon a conviction for publiſhing a ſeditious libel, called "Spence's Reſtorer of Society," in which he recommends the abolition of all private property in land, and veſting it in pariſhes, for the benefit of the public at large. The report of the trial having been read by lord Kenyon, the defendant addreſſed the court in a ſpeech, in which he profeſſed he was actuated in writing the libel in queſtion by the ſame philanthropy which diſtinguiſhed the prophets of former times. He warned their lordſhips to regard what hiſtory and poſterity would ſay of them if they treated him with ſeverity. He ſaid, the treatment he received gave him but very little encouragement in labouring for the improvement of ſociety. Such was the ingratitude of mankind, that he was conſidered by the world as a madman and a lunatic, and behaved to in priſon worſe than a common felon. He had, however, done nothing but what his own conſcience juſtified him for doing; and if, notwithſtanding the purity of his intentions, the court ſhould think him an object of puniſhment, the cauſe in which he ſuffered would enable him to bear it with fortitude. The attorney-general declined preſſing any obſervation againſt the defendant. The court ordered him to be remanded to Newgate, and brought up again on this day ſe'nnight. A perſon came forward as the friend of the defendant, and aſſured the court he was not, as had been unjuſtly repreſented, the head of any ſect or party. It appeared that this man was a crack-brained, half-witted organiſt, and the court accordingly ordered him to be ſilent, and mind his own buſineſs.

On the day appointed Spence was brought up, and received the ſentence of the court, which was, to pay a fine of 50l. and to ſuffer twelve months impriſonment.

14th. A cauſe was this day heard in the court of king's bench, wherein Mr. Haycraft, a reſpectable ironmonger, was plaintiff, and Mr. Creaſy, a currier, defendant.—It was brought for 485l. 9s. 4d. the amount of goods for which, on the miſrepreſentation of Mr. C. the plaintiff had credited Miſs Robinſon, late of Blackheath. On the part of the plaintiff, the ſtricteſt caution appeared to have been uſed before the order was executed; but it was entirely ſatisfied by the declaration of the defendant. The defence ſet up was, that Mr. Creaſy

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Creasy had been her dupe; that he had founded his favourable report of her on no better foundation than her own assertion; and that there were many others (several of whom he produced) of as extreme credulity as himself.—Lord Kenyon, in his charge, confined himself to the simple fact of the goods having been furnished in consequence of the representation of the defendant, to whom he imputed nothing criminal. He laid it down, "that the defendant should have said such circumstances came to his knowledge respecting the lady who was the subject of inquiry, as induced him to believe she was a person of fortune." But having thought proper to describe her as a person, whom he knew might be safely trusted, he was of opinion that no part of the defence repelled the action, and that, *in foro conscientiæ*, the plaintiff was entitled to a verdict. The jury found accordingly.

18th. The annual sheep-shearing festival at Woburn closed this day. The company exceeded five hundred agriculturalists, among whom were many noblemen. The duke of Bedford himself presided, aided by lord Carrington, and the weather proving extremely favourable, the gala, which lasted three days, went off with the greatest eclat. Several cattle were exhibited, and experiments made, with a view to ascertain many proposed improvements in agriculture; and the committee of prizes adjudged the different premiums with great judgement, to the satisfaction of all present, who departed highly gratified by the duke's attentions, and the noble scene they had assisted at.

The Gazette contained orders by his majesty, dated Kew, 29th of May, and June 3, authorizing the dukes of Clarence, Kent, and Cumberland, princes Augustus, Adolphus, and William of Gloucester, the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, dukes of Saxe Gotha, Richmond, Devonshire, Portland, Northumberland, Beaufort, Buccleugh, and Roxburgh, marquisses Cornwallis, Buckingham, Lansdown, and Salisbury, earls of Chatham, Westmorland, Carlisle, Spencer, and Camden, to exercise all the rights and privileges belonging to the knights companions of the garter, as if they had been formally installed, his Majesty being pleased to dispense with the statutes and regulations usually observed in regard to installation.

19th. The first stone of the Royal Military Asylum was laid at Chelsea, in presence of the duke of York, attended by the secretary at war, lord Harrington, general Delancey, &c. when several coins and medals, commemorating our naval and military victories, were placed under it.

29th. This day, after lasting 56 days, including 12,393 articles, and an Appendix of 270 more, closed the sale of the library of the late John Strange, esq. LL.D. F.R. and F.A.S. and formerly his British majesty's resident at Venice, who died March 19, 1799.

30th. This afternoon, between two and three, there was experienced, in this metropolis and its neighbourhood, one of the most violent storms of thunder, accompanied with a most furious hurricane, and torrents of rain, that was ever known. The thunder was very loud, and the lightning vivid. The wind was most tempestuous; and the rain fell, not in drops, but in whole sheets. It never was remembered that so much rain fell in the

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ſame ſpace: the ſewers could not carry off the water ſo faſt as it fell. The Strand, in ſome places, reſembled a canal, and was almoſt navigable from ſide to ſide. The ſtorm continued upwards of half an hour to rage with this violence. The court of common pleas, Weſtminſter, was thrown into much confuſion. The wind drove the rain with ſuch violence againſt the ſky-light, that it broke the glaſs; and a torrent of rain deſcended on the wigs and cravats of the counſel, who inſtantly forſook their ſeats in terror and diſmay.

This morning two of the York huſſars were ſhot on Bincombe Down, near Weymouth, purſuant to the ſentence of a court martial, for deſertion, and cutting a boat out of the harbour with intent to go into France, but by miſtake they landed at Guernſey, and were ſecured. All the regiments both in camp and barracks were drawn up, viz. the greys, the rifle corps, and the Stafford, Berks, and North Devon militia. They came on the ground in a mourning coach, attended by two prieſts: after marching along the front of the line they returned to the centre, where they ſpent about twenty minutes in prayer, and were then ſhot at by a guard of twenty-four men: they dropped inſtantly, and expired without a groan. They appeared ſenſible of their awful ſituation, and very penitent. The men then wheeled in ſections, and marched by the bodies in ſlow time.

An additional allowance has been made to the prince of Wales of 8000l. per annum; but when his debts are paid off, which will be in about five years, this 8000l. per annum, then amounting to 40,000l. will be deducted from his income; ſo that it is only money lent. His royal highneſs's income, before this allowance, was 69,000l. per annum, of which 22,000l. is appropriated for the uſe of the princeſs of Wales.

A difference between lord Hawkeſbury and the knights marſhal volunteers, in regard to the uſe of an apartment under the ſecretary of ſtate's office at Whitehall, has lately given occaſion to ſir James Bland Burgeſs, and the other officers of that corps, to reſign.

Admiral ſir Hyde Parker lately applied to the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, requeſting a court-martial to be held on him, to inveſtigate his conduct, from the time of the battle off Copenhagen, until he reſigned the command of his majeſty's fleet in the Baltic. Their lordſhips, however, declined Sir Hyde's ſolicitation.

DIED.—28th. Francis Wheatley, eſq. R. A. an artiſt of talents that might have raiſed him to the higheſt diſtinction in the arts, either in the province of landſcape or portrait. From very early life, however, he had been ſubject to attacks of the gout, which, for a long time, diſabled him for a great part of the year, and which, for a conſiderable time before his death, had wholly deprived him of power to purſue his profeſſion. This infirmity, and the conſequences to which it expoſed him, prevented him from ſtudying nature as a landſcape; and therefore he was obliged, too often, to have recourſe to the evaneſcent traces of memory. If his works in general are not diſtinguiſhed for vigour and expreſſion, they are recommended by taſte and elegance. He was not ſo correct in his repreſentation of rural imagery as a favourite landſcape painter of the preſent day; but

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but he was not so vulgar in his conceptions, nor so gaudy in his execution, as other living artists, who have contrived to raise their talents into higher reputation. He has left a widow and seven children.

JULY.

1st. An experiment took place on the river Thames, for the purpose of working a barge, or any other heavy craft, against tide, by means of a steam-engine, on a very simple construction. The moment the engine was set to work, the barge was brought about, answering her helm quickly, and she made way against a strong current, at the rate of two miles and a half an hour.

From the London Gazette.

The following letter having been humbly submitted to his majesty by the under-mentioned officers, who served in the detachment of his majesty's 15th regiment of light dragoons, in the action of Villers en Couché, near Cambray, on the 24th April, 1794; his majesty has been graciously pleased to grant to each of them his royal licence and permission to accept the rank of knight of the imperial military order of Maria Theresa, and bear the insignia thereof, the same having been conferred upon them by the emperor of Germany, in testimony of the high sense which his imperial majesty entertained of their distinguished conduct upon that occasion—W. Aylett, Rt. Pocklington, Ed. Mich. Ryan, Thos. Grandby Calcraft, Wm. Keir, Charles Burrell Blount, Edw. Gerald Butler, and Robert Thomas Wilson.

Letter from his excellency lord Minto, his majesty's envoy extraordinary and plenipotentiary at the court of Vienna, to lieut.-colonel William Aylett.

Sir, *Vienna, Nov. 7*, 1800.

I have received from his excellency, baron Thugut, eight crosses of the order of Maria Theresa, which the emperor has been pleased to confer on yourself, and seven other officers under-named, of the 15th regiment of light dragoons, who distinguished themselves in a most gallant action, near Villers en Couché, on the 24th April, 1794. His imperial majesty had already testified the high sense he entertained of the brilliant and important service which the regiment performed on that occasion, by presenting the officers engaged with a medal, struck for the purpose of commemorating that distinguished action, and affording to those who achieved it a lasting testimony of his approbation and gratitude. It was deemed at the time worthy of the cross of Maria Theresa; but at that period a doubt was entertained whether this order could be conferred on foreigners; that difficulty being now removed, his imperial majesty avails himself with pleasure of the occasion, to evince his high esteem for the regiment, as well as his regard for the individuals, by investing with this distinguished order of merit gentlemen who have proved themselves worthy to wear it. In transmitting to you, sir, these crosses, to be distributed to the officers for whom they are destined, I cannot omit the opportunity of expressing the satisfaction I have experienced from the share which my situation here has afforded me in the transaction, which, while it does honour to the liberality of his imperial majesty, and throws so

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much luſtre on the corps and on thoſe who are immediately concerned, reflects at the ſame time credit on the country to which they belong. I am, &c.

MINTO.

7th. The Ambuſcade frigate, which ſome time ſince ſurrendered to us in the intereſt of the houſe of Orange, in going from Sheerneſs harbour to the Downs, filled with water and ſunk, owing, it is ſuppoſed, to a plank in her bottom ſtarting. Fortunately all the crew and perſons on board, except eight, were ſaved by the boats of the tender and ſhips in the harbour. The hulk has been ſince weighed and recovered.

10th. The canal to Paddington was opened this morning for trade, with a grand proceſſion, along the Paddington line to Bull's-bridge at Uxbridge. Exactly at nine, the committee, with their friends, in two pleaſure-boats, ſet ſail, with colours and ſtreamers flying, each veſſel being towed by two horſes. At 12 o'clock the company were met at Bull's-bridge by the city ſhallop (having on board the ſub-committee of the Thames navigation), and ſeveral pleaſure-boats, with large parties of ladies. On meeting, a ſalute was fired, and then the proceſſion returned, in the following order:

1. The committee, and their friends, in two barges, with the Buckinghamſhire band of muſic.
2. The city ſhallop.
3. Seven pleaſure-boats.

At half paſt five the proceſſion reached the great dock. This was announced by the firing of cannon on Weſtbourn-green-bridge, and a volley of muſquetry from the town. After three huzzas, the company landed, and walked to the Yorkſhire Stingo, and, at half paſt ſix, ſat down to dinner, and ſpent the evening with conviviality. Great praiſe is due to the committee for the expedition which they have uſed ſince laſt ſpring in completing the canal. A long range of warehouſes are nearly finiſhed, for the reception of goods. This day not leſs than eight laden barges arrived. A public road, 100 feet wide, was finiſhed on Monday laſt to the quay, which is but a few paces from the Edgeware-road. The number of perſons preſent could not be leſs than 20,000: for ſeveral miles the banks of the canal were lined with people. Several ſtages were erected for accommodation, and a long ſtring of carriages appeared on the public walk.

Meſſrs. Owen and Mardale, of Houndſditch, were indicted, and found guilty, of having a large quantity of the king's naval ſtores in their poſſeſſion: they have ſince abſconded, and the recognizances of their bail have been eſtreated.

11th. Lord Hawkeſbury addreſſed the following bulletin to the lord mayor:

"*Downing-ſtreet, July 11th, half paſt eight, P. M.*

"My Lord,

"I have great ſatisfaction in informing you, that captain Blake, of the Diſpatch cutter, is juſt arrived from St. Peterſburgh, and has brought a convention, ſigned on the 17th of June by lord St. Helen's, and count Panin, on the part of his majeſty and the emperor of Ruſſia, by which all differences between the two countries have been amicably adjuſted.

"Their Daniſh and Swediſh majeſties

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jeſties have been invited to accede to *this* convention.

" I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) " HAWKESBURY."

The Right Hon. the Lord Mayor.

22d. This morning, at an early hour, immenſe crowds from the metropolis and adjacent parts made their appearance in Hyde-park, to witneſs the review of thoſe volunteer and aſſociated corps, in London and its environs, who ſo patriotically enrolled, equipped, and diſciplined themſelves, at their own expenſe, for the defence and ſafety of their country. The different corps, to the number of 4734, had been drawn up for a conſiderable time, when, at ten, his royal highneſs the commander-in-chief appeared on the ground, accompanied by his brother the duke of Kent, lord Harrington, lord Cathcart, and ſeveral other general officers, aids-du-camp, &c. In leſs than half an hour afterwards, arrived his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, eſcorted by the Weſtminſter cavalry. The royal Highlanders, commanded by captain Roſs, were poſted in the centre of the line, on ground independent of the other corps, in the angle between the right and left wing; and, on the 5th ſignal being given, they commenced the fire by a volley, which was continued by the reſpective corps from the centre to the flanks of the line. The ſame was repeated at the 6th and 7th ſignal. The various corps then went through their exerciſe and evolutions with conſiderable expertneſs. The vollies were in general very regular; and, from the very excellent appearance of the men, the elegance of the uniforms, the fine order of the arms, and the aſſemblage of beauty, which gave luſtre to the ſpectacle, the *coup d'œil* was, upon the whole, extremely magnificent. The favourable weather, the cauſe of the aſſemblage, and curioſity ſpringing from the moſt praiſe-worthy motives, attracted nearly all the metropolis to Hyde-park. It was computed that, independent of the volunteers, upwards of 30,000 ſpectators attended.

28th. The following account of the eſcape of ſome priſoners from the gaol of Newgate, in Dublin, on the 18th, perhaps can only, if at all, be paralleled by the hiſtory of Jack Shepherd's eſcape from the London Newgate. On the ground-floor in the inner yard, twenty-eight priſoners were confined in four cells, to each of which there is an iron door leading to the upper apartments, at the foot of which there is alſo an iron door. On the 15th, about twelve o'clock, the priſoners perceiving that their cells were inſpected by the turnkeys, conceived it to be a good time to effect their eſcape before the next inſpection; and accordingly on that day, while they had the liberty of the yard, they agreed on their plan, which the want of a rope to deſcend by from the roof prevented the execution of on that night; but the next day one of their wives having contrived to convey them a rope, on that night they made the neceſſary breaches, which they effected between ſeven and nine o'clock, having been locked up at ſix. Their plan was to break a communication between the cells, and thence to the ſtairs, which they effected with no other inſtruments than one piece of iron about ſix inches long, and their knives: with theſe they made their way through the thick walls that ſupport

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ſupport the arches of the cells. On aſcending the ſtairs, they were ſtopped by a door at the foot of the upper flight: this difficulty, however, they ſoon overcame, as a wall built in place of the hand-railing is but four inches thick: they next had to encounter an iron grate in the chimney of an upper room, but by breaking the wall at the end of the grate they got above it. Having thus opened a paſſage to the roof, their next object was to get rid of the heavy irons with which ſome of them were bolted: they therefore waited till the next night. On their return to their cells, they ſtopped the breaches with ſtones, and the next day the deputy-gaoler, having an information that one of the priſoners had requeſted of a woman to bring him a rope for the purpoſe of eſcaping, he loaded him with irons, which, however, he contrived to file off, and eſcaped with the reſt. About one o'clock on Saturday morning, ſixteen of them got on the roof of the ſeſſion-houſe, at the end of which, next to Green-ſtreet, they raiſed the lead, and faſtened a rope to one of the rafters, by which they deſcended to the waſte ground between the ſeſſion-houſe and the ſheriff's priſon. The laſt of the ſixteen, named Traynor, alias Murphy, diſtinctly heard the only centinel in view (who was planted above one hundred yards from the place they deſcended) regularly challenge every man as he walked away; they anſwered, "a friend," were ſuffered to paſs into Green-ſtreet, but on Murphy's getting to the ground, the centinel, who by this time had approached the ſpot, after challenging, perceived the rope, and exclaimed, "You came down by that rope?" which the other acknowledged and ſurrendered. One of the priſoners eſcaped with a ſingle bolt on.

DIED—27th. At Vienna, aged 46, the archduke Maximilian, elector of Cologne. Being much reſpected, he had conſiderable influence at the court of Vienna, and was adverſe to the party of Thugut. He was uncle to the preſent emperor of Germany, and brother to the two laſt, and to the late queen of France. His court was once ſplendid by the number of the aſſemblage of French emigrant princes and nobles; but his ſtates were early overrun and ravaged, ſo that they will never recover the loſs. Perhaps his death may facilitate the ſecularization of the empire, to which his influence was a great impediment. He was prodigiouſly fat, weighing not leſs than 4 cwt. On the 29th his remains were interred in the burial place of the imperial family. His perſonal property is bequeathed to his nephew, prince Maximilian Joſeph, now 19 years of age, and third ſon of the grand duke of Tuſcany. It amounts to 10 or 12 millions of florins. The archduke Charles has a conſiderable legacy, and ſucceeds to the grand maſterſhip of the Teutonic order.

AUGUST.

1ſt. The marquis of Abercorn this day, propoſing to accompany the marchioneſs and lady C. Hamilton in a phaeton, from the priory, Stanmore, to Harrow, about eleven in the forenoon, had ſcarcely advanced 200 yards from the priory, when the horſes took fright, and ſet off with an alarming rapidity, which continued down hill through the

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the town of Stanmore; and, to add to the calamity, the reins broke. The ladies, apprehenſive of the moſt dangerous conſequences, ſhrieked with ſuch violence, as deprived the marquis of that preſence of mind ſo neceſſary at ſuch a critical juncture. Endeavouring in vain to ſtop the horſes, he adviſed the marchioneſs and his daughter to ſit quiet; and, in riſing up to make more room for the young lady who ſat in the middle, he was, by a ſudden jerk, thrown out, and both his legs broken. The one fracture was under, and the other above the knee. The marchioneſs and lady Hamilton ſtill kept their ſeats, notwithſtanding the horſes ran with uncommon celerity along the road to Edgware. At the turning of a lane, when the horſes made a ſudden ſpring forward, the marchioneſs and lady Hamilton were thrown out; the firſt into the ditch, the other over the hedge, and were no otherwiſe hurt, than from the ſcratches of a few brambles. The marquis was with great difficulty carried home, after his legs had been ſet by Mr. Andrews, of Stanmore. Mr. Heaviſide and other ſurgeons were afterwards ſent for from London, who approved of what had been done; and a ſpeedy recovery ſuperſeded all farther attendance. The horſes proceeded towards the entrance of Canons, when Mr. Deveil, curate of Edgeware, paſſing along the road, and recollecting that horſes on full ſpeed are frequently ſtopped by another horſe croſſing upon them, attempted by this means to ſtop them, but, unhappily, the chaiſe horſes run againſt the rails before an adjoining houſe and ſtopped, but threw down Mr. Deveil's horſe, and entangled him and his rider with themſelves, from which ſituation Mr. Deveil was diſengaged by the ſervants of the houſe, but not without the diſlocation of his knee-pan.

6th. A fire broke out this morning, about four, at Meſſrs. James's, wholeſale grocers and tea-dealers, Abchurch-lane, Lombard-ſtreet, which entirely conſumed the dwelling-houſe, their extenſive warehouſes, containing near 200 cheſts of tea; another dwelling-houſe, and cotton warehouſe adjoining. This ſerious conflagration is ſuppoſed to be owing to the negligence of ſome workmen who were repairing the premiſes.

15th. At a ſpecial ſeſſions for the county of Surrey, held in Horſemonger-lane, before lord Grantley and the bench of juſtices, for diſcharging inſolvent debtors under the late act, a man of the name of Park applied to be delivered from thraldom; he was oppoſed by a creditor, one Martin, who ſtated, that the tranſaction for which Park was impriſoned was of ſuch a nature, that he was not entitled to the benefit of the act; that he had formerly been a hop-merchant, but had hopped off in every body's debt; that he had ſince applied himſelf to the ſtudy of aſtronomy and magic; and that Park and himſelf had agreed to conſolidate their knowledge, and publiſh a new ſyſtem of aſtronomy, which was completely to refute all the abſurd notions of Sir Iſaac Newton. In furtherance of their plan, they invented a ſuperb orrery, and engaged Leiceſter-houſe to exhibit it, but Mr. Gedge, the landlord, with profane hands, ſeized upon it for rent. In the mean time, the book went on; the price was to have been a guinea, and it was to have been publiſhed by ſubſcription. Park, who undertook

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took the task of receiving the subscriptions, put the money into his own pocket, sold the plates for a trifle, and thus defrauded his partner, the present plaintiff, of his share of the profits of their joint labours. He hoped the court would take cognizance of such fraudulent conduct, and not suffer the defendant to be discharged. The court remarked, that this was entirely a partnership transaction between two conjurors, neither of whom much deserved the name; for the one ought to have foreseen that his knavery would have brought him to a prison; and the other, that if he intrusted him to receive the cash, he would run away with it. The result was, the astronomer was suffered to go about his business.

21st. The sale of Mr. Beckford's goods took place this day. The house, as well as all the adjacent grounds, were crowded with genteel people; the court and stable-yard with carriages, and all the gates, doors, and passages, with lacqueys and beggars. The auction was in the great hall, where an organ, 26 feet high and 15 feet wide, is placed. This very masterly instrument, built and finished in such superlative taste, that it is said to have cost near 2000l. played till the business of the day commenced. The auctioneer began with an eulogium on the goods to be exposed, and stated them to be the most splendid and transcendant he ever had the honour of bringing to the hammer. Indeed, there was not an item in this day's sale which might not, both for value and magnificence, suit any palace in Europe. Not a stool, or tripod, or spring-blind, or window-curtain, brought so little as a guinea. Some marble slabs went at more than 100 guineas each. A bust of old Homer was knocked down at 27 guineas, and that of Virgil at 19. Every thing in the room, fitted *à la Turque*, sold immensely high. The richness of the hangings, all silk or satin, of superlative quality, the brilliant French plates of glass which decorated and enlivened every side of the room, the sofas formed in the most sumptuous style of oriental magnificence, the chairs and stools, all gilt with burnished gold, attracted every eye; and it was laughable to see even the Wiltshire farmers furnishing their homely parlours with the gorgeous accumulation of inordinate fortune, and of effeminate taste. Some articles sold, notwithstanding, much under value. Two library tables, of the most elegant construction and exquisite workmanship, hardly brought one half of what was expected for them. One could scarcely conceive so many purchasers for such a collection of finery, incomparable as it was; and, what renders their eagerness the more singular is, that no one piece taken from the rest can possibly accord with any other household of ordinary excellence.

A respectable tradesman at Yaxley, near Norman-cross, was tried at the late Huntingdon assizes, for having in his custody a quantity of paillasses, and other articles, marked with the broad arrow of government, and obtained from the prisoners of war at Norman-cross. He was convicted, and sentenced to stand in the pillory at Norman-cross, and be kept for two years to hard labour in the house of correction.

At the quarter sessions for Westmoreland, a settlement cause was tried respecting the family of one Swain, a pauper, which had formerly

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ly been upon the parish of Egremont. The result of the trial fixed them upon Heversham parish, with an expence of 100l. more than it would have incurred by affording the proper maintenance. There are frequent proofs of similar parochial economy.

At the Easter assizes at Shrewsbury, a man charged with sheep-stealing, affected to be dumb, and consequently unable to plead to the indictment. He was remanded to prison, and at the late sessions again arraigned. He persisted in silence, when a jury was empannelled to inquire into the cause, and finding that he was mute only with a view of evading trial, he was put to the bar, found guilty of the offence imputed to him, and left by the judges for execution. After conviction, he implored for mercy, declaring, that he had been advised to feign dumbness as the means of escaping punishment.

At the assizes at Maidstone, there was a cause which, from its novelty, excited an uncommon degree of attention; such a circumstance has not occurred for half a century: it was a trial of a writ of right, in which sir John Honeywood was demandant against lord Gwydir, to recover a piece of land. The jury consisted of sixteen knights. After a long discussion, a verdict was given in favour of sir John Honeywood.

The late Mr. Robinson, of Stockwell, some months since, left 70,000l. for the formation of a botanical garden; some circumstances, however, occurring to defeat the intentions of the deceased, the executors made search for his lawful heirs, and found them to be a man in extreme indigence at Chopton, near Woodbridge, named Bedwell, and the wife of a poor labouring man at Middleton, sister to Mr. Robinson. The money has been divided between them.

A boat, crossing from Limehouse-hole to Deptford, with a gentleman, his wife, and child, was run down by a lighter with such rapidity as to cause it to bulge; and, before assistance could be procured, they were all drowned except the waterman, who kept himself above water till a boat arrived to his relief.

The total number of all the new publications, published in London, during the year 1800, was 693. The cost, estimated in boards, amounted to 2301. 5s.

DIED—At Tunbridge-wells, after an hour's indisposition, sir Geo. Warren, K. B. of Boynton, Cheshire. He married, in June, 1758, his first wife, miss Revell, with a fortune of 200,000l.; and she dying, he married, secondly, February 3, 1764, the daughter of sir Cecil Bishop, one of the maids of honour to the queen. He was separated from this lady, by the decision of the ecclesiastical court, in consequence of complaints against each other, for incompatibility of temper, and personal habits mutually repulsive. These mutual objections were strongly stated in court, and seemed to indicate unappeaseable antipathy; yet, after this public exposition of their grievances, resentments, and aversions, they came together again, and lived with each other till death produced the final separation. The final pleadings relative to the citations of lady Warren against sir George, her husband, for cruelty, and thereby requiring a separate maintenance, and separation *à mensa et thoro*, came on before Dr. Bettesworth, in the prerogative court, Doctor's Commons,

June

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June 26, 1772; when, after a hearing of 11 hours, the judge thought fit to dimiſs the citation in favour of ſir George Warren, the defendant. Sir George repreſented the borough of Lancaſter in parliament, 1758; was made K. B. 1761; and conceived he had a claim to the barony of the earls of Warren, whoſe arms he bore, with the addition of a canton, and accordingly employed the late Mr. Watſon (whom he preſented to the rectory of Stockport), with the aſſiſtance of the late Mr. Brooke, Somerſet-herald, to compile a regular hiſtory of thoſe earls, deducing his deſcent and claims from them. This work, handſomely printed in two large quarto volumes, with coſtly plates by Baſire, was circulated for correction and information; but on the death of the author, and ill health of the patron, was laid aſide. His remains were interred in the family-vault at Cheſter, with great funeral pomp. Except thoſe of the royal family, the proceſſion was one of the moſt coſtly and attractive that has been ſeen for ſeveral years.

SEPTEMBER.

6th. The town of Wellington (Shropſhire) was viſited by the moſt tremendous ſtorm of thunder and lightning ever known in the memory of the oldeſt inhabitants. Its continuance was near two hours, during which the claps of thunder were loud and inceſſant, and the flaſhes of lightning awfully vivid; and theſe added to a torrent of rain which choaked up all the water-courſes, and cauſed a general inundation, filled the inhabitants with terror and diſmay. The lightning ſtruck the gaol and ſhattered the roof; it exploded alſo in ſeveral places in the centre of the town, but fortunately no lives were loſt. Much damage was done in the different cellars, which were completely filled with water, and the roads in general were rendered impaſſable. In its paſſage from Wellington to Colnbrook-dale, its effects were ſtill more dreadful. One of the furnaces at Ketley was blown up, and ſeveral houſes were unrooſed and otherwiſe injured. Many horſes, &c. were drowned.

15th. A clerical impoſtor, who calls himſelf Thomas Scott Smith, has actually officiated for a month for the curate of St. Martin's in the Fields, never having been in orders, or connected with the profeſſion. He had ingenuity enough to introduce himſelf to Mr. Fell, the curate, as a countryman of his (Yorkſhire), ſaying he was nephew to lord Eldon, and had been in orders near twelve months. Mr. Fell accepted the proffered aſſiſtance the more readily, being at the time in ill health.—Every thing was ſettled, and the pretended nephew of lord Eldon entered on his clerical duty the next day. In a converſation with the clerk, he ſaid that he was educated at Queen's college, Cambridge, where he had taken his degree of bachelor of arts about a month ſince. On the Saturday following, he went to a mercer's ſhop in Holywell-ſtreet, in the Strand, and ordered a ſet of canonicals to be made by four o'clock in the afternoon; in the interim he borrowed a ſet, told the ſhopman his name was Smith, and that he was chaplain to lord Eldon. The mercer took the trouble to call at lord Eldon's, to make the neceſſary inquiry, when the ſteward inform-

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ed him that no perſon of the name of Smith was engaged by his lordſhip in that capacity. In conſequence of this information, the mercer called in his way back at St. Martin's, and ſaw Mr. Smith in the veſtry; when he told him, that he had an opportunity of diſpoſing of the ſet of canonicals he had lent him in the morning; but to prevent Mr. Smith's being put to any inconvenience, he ſhould have the ſet he had ordered by three o'clock preciſely. By this fineſſe the mercer got back his goods. This new ſpecies of depredation might have continued a ſhort time longer, had he not been apprehended and brought to Bow-ſtreet this day, on a charge of forging, and uttering as true, an order for the payment of ten pounds, purporting to be the order of Robert Smith, his father, on Meſſrs. Smith, Payne, and Smith, bankers, near the manſion-houſe, which he had negociated to Mr. Capper, the maſter of the Hungerford coffee-houſe, Strand, to whom he was introduced as a clergyman officiating for the curate of St. Martin's in the Fields. The fact as to his paſſing the draft in queſtion was ſufficiently proved by Meſſrs. Smith, Payne, and Co. and that no ſuch perſon as Robert Smith, whom the priſoner, when he negociated the draft to Mr. Capper, repreſented to be his father, kept caſh at their houſe, or ever did.—The priſoner was educated at Peckham ſchool, and had been employed as a rider to a wholeſale houſe in the city. During the time he officiated as prieſt, he was very attentive to duty, read prayers morning and afternoon; and thus, with adminiſtering the ſacrament, attending chriſtenings and burials, marriages, &c. his time was wholly taken up. The clerk was known to ſay he was a little awkward at firſt; but reſpect for the dignity of his new maſter prevented comment, and rendered him extremely willing to give every aſſiſtance in his power. He is only twenty-three years of age, middle ſtature, in perſon thin, and when he ſtood at the bar at Bow-ſtreet, ſtared around him with an unmeaning eye, apparently quite indifferent as to his ſituation.

He has ſince been found guilty of forgery, and is under ſentence of death.

19th. The ſentence of death, which had been paſſed on ſir Hen. Browne Hayes, for running away with Miſs Pike, has been mitigated to tranſportation for life to Botany Bay.

Naſſau, Bahama's, July 25. On Wedneſday laſt we experienced the moſt dreadful hurricane that ever was felt in theſe iſlands during its continuance. On the 20th and 21ſt the wind got to the N. E. and on the 22d, in the morning, it blew freſh from N. N. E. getting more to the northward with great violence.—About 12 o'clock we became greatly alarmed, and by two o'clock it blew a hurricane. The veſſels then began to drive from their moorings, notwithſtanding all the maſts were ſtruck, and their anchors down, and every poſſible precaution uſed to make them keep their moorings: luckily, there was leſs ſhipping in the harbour than there uſually is at this time of the year; but the whole drove from their moorings, and came in a ſtring on the ſhore. The tide was flowing, and as it roſe the hurricane increaſed in violence until the wind became due north; very fortunately this drove all the veſſels on the town-ſide of the harbour, and prevented them from driving out to ſea;

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ſea; for, by three o'clock there was ſcarcely a veſſel in the harbour.—The Britiſh ſhip Echo had captured a Guineaman, which lay up the harbour; but ſhe parted from her anchors, and drove towards the town, ſtruck on the ground, and got on her beam-ends: the ſeamen got to leeward on her ſides, and 250 ſlaves on board, between decks, were in the moſt imminent danger. After a ſhort time the veſſel fortunately righted, and drove on ſhore, where the crew and ſlaves were unexpectedly preſerved. Another Guineaman, named the George, which only arrived on the 21ſt, got on ſhore, and was in the greateſt danger, but the crew and ſlaves were fortunately ſaved. At three o'clock the wind began to get about to the eaſtward, but without any diminution of violence, and the ſpray of the ſea roſe in ſuch clouds as to render objects at a ſmall diſtance invifible. At about half-paſt four the wind got round to the eaſt, and kept veering about with the ſun; a ſure prognoſtic that the gale would not be of any long continuance: but ſtill its violence was unabated. About this time the tide began to ebb, before the wind got round to the ſouthward; otherwiſe the veſſels muſt unavoidably have been driven to ſea, and would, in all probability, have been totally loſt; but, as they were all driven up at high water, none of them were blown off. About ſunſet, the wind had got round to the ſouth, and ſtill blew with much violence; but as the town and harbour were ſheltered by the hills, it was not much felt there; and by eight or nine o'clock, when the ſun ſet, there was nothing remaining but a freſh gale. There is ſcarcely any ſuch thing as eſtimating the loſs occaſioned in thoſe few hours, but it is generally thought to amount to 100,000l.—This may be credited, when you learn that, at one time, we counted 120 veſſels ſtranded; beſides ſeveral that were ſunk and cruſhed to pieces by other veſſels. The maſts of the veſſels were not cut away; they were literally blown away.—One of the Guineamen loſt hers, together with the bowſprit, by the ſheer force of the wind. Many veſſels are bilged, and many totally abandoned; but, in general, there are hopes of ſaving moſt of thoſe that were ſtranded. On ſhore the damage done has been equal, in compariſon, with that at ſea. The ſea, to the ſouthward of Fort Montague, made a breach through the ſand-hills, and has filled the valley to the weſtward of it many feet deep.

21ſt. A very extraordinary robbery took place in the houſe of lords: the whole of the gold lace, and all the ornaments of the throne, the king's arms excepted, were ſtripped off, and carried away.

29th. At a common-hall, this day, Mr. Aldermen Newman and ſir John Eamer were returned by the livery of London to the court of aldermen as proper perſons to ſerve the office of lord mayor; when, on a ſcrutiny in the court of aldermen, the majority fell on ſir John Eamer, who was accordingly inveſted with the civic chain.—The thanks of the hall were unanimouſly voted to the late ſheriffs Perring and Cadell, "for their unremitting attention to, and faithful diſcharge of, the various and important duties of that highly reſpectable office, and particularly for their active and benevolent exertions to adminiſter relief to the numerous neceſſitous perſons committed to their

cuſtody

cuſtody in a ſeaſon of general diſtreſs, and under circumſtances of peculiar difficulty."

Letters from the iſle of France, dated the 29th of April, ſtate, that Le Naturaliſte and Le Geographe had ſailed from thence, on their appointed voyage of diſcovery, under the command of citizen Baudin.

The ſtatue of Suvaroff, in marble, has been placed in the imperial gardens, at Peterſburgh, in the preſence of the emperor, the royal family, and ſeveral regiments of life-guards; it was accompanied by muſic. Prince Conſtantine made a ſpeech upon the occaſion.

The French government have taken much pains to ameliorate the wool of their native ſheep by the introduction of Spaniſh rams. They have ſucceeded in producing a valuable mixed breed. Ewes have, within this year, been trebled in value, and rams are at nearly eight-fold their laſt year's prices: the latter go ſo far as thirty louis.

DIED.—9th. The rev. Owen Manning, vicar of Godalming, and rector of Pepper Hava, both in Surrey. He completed and publiſhed, in 2 volumes, folio, 1772, the Saxon dictionary, which had been begun by his friend the rev. Edward Lye. Mr. Manning left behind him large collections towards a topographical hiſtory of Surrey; he died in the 80th year of his age.

10th. At Hackney, Gilbert Wakefield, of whom we ſhall give ſome account under the head of characters. His remains were interred with much funeral pomp at Richmond, in Surrey, where his brother Thomas is at preſent incumbent.

OCTOBER.

2d. Preliminaries of peace between his majeſty and the French republic were ſigned laſt night at lord Hawkeſbury's office, in Downing-ſtreet, by the right honourable lord Hawkeſbury, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, on the part of his majeſty, and by M. Otto, on the part of the French government.

10th. About noon, general Lauriſton, firſt aid-de-camp to general Bonaparte, arrived in town with the ratification of the preliminaries of peace. M. Otto immediately waited on lord Hawkeſbury with him, and at three o'clock the park and tower guns announced the exchange of the ratifications. Citizen Lauriſton arrived at Dover at nine o'clock the evening before. On his paſſing through town to M. Otto's reſidence, his carriage was followed by a numerous concourſe of people, who afterwards took the horſes from his carriage, and drew it down Bond-ſtreet, St. James's-ſtreet, and to Downing-ſtreet, expreſſing on the occaſion the moſt tumultuous joy.—M. Otto and M. Lauriſton, attended by Mr. Cox, the meſſenger, from Downing-ſtreet, then proceeded to the admiralty; where they were met at the garden-gate by lord St. Vincent, who very good humouredly addreſſed the mob thus:—"Gentlemen! Gentlemen!" (the populace gave his lordſhip three huzzas) "let me requeſt you to be as orderly as poſſible; and, if you are determined to draw the gentleman accompanied by M. Otto, I requeſt of you to be careful, and not overturn the carriage."—The populace aſſured his lordſhip they would be careful of, and reſpectful to, the ſtrangers.

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At night there was a general illumination throughout the metropolis and its vicinity, which was renewed the next evening.

A letter from Moſcow, dated October 1, ſays: "The ceremony of the young emperor's coronation has been particularly grand; ſo much ſo in fact, that I feel recompenſed by the ſight, for the very comfortleſs journey of two thouſand miles, which I encountered in order to be preſent at it.

"The emperor arrived at his palace in the ſuburbs, on the 22d ult. where he continued to reſide till the 27th; during the interim, however, he repeatedly viſited the city in private. On the morning of Sunday he made his public entry: the proceſſion was led by the heralds and the grand duke's regiment of cavalry; to theſe ſucceeded a long line of empty carriages belonging to the nobility; a regiment of huſſars, richly dreſſed, well mounted, and in all reſpects the fineſt corps I ever ſaw, followed; and then the nobility in their carriages of ſtate, the grand chamberlains, and all the ſuperior officers of the government. The equipages were moſt magnificent; the carriages in general were drawn by ſix horſes, and attended by eight ſervants in the richeſt liveries.

"The empreſs dowager, in her ſtate carriage, came next; then the preſent empreſs (a moſt lovely woman); and then the ſiſters of the emperor, followed by another regiment of huſſars, capariſoned as the former.

"Next in ſucceſſion came the emperor mounted on a fine Engliſh horſe, with the grand duke riding on his right, and a vaſt body of guards cloſed the proceſſion.

"The church ceremony commenced by the archbiſhop Plato conſecrating the crown, &c. At nine o'clock the empreſs mother entered the cathedral under a ſalute of cannon and a *feu de joye*, and took her ſeat, which was prepared on the left hand of the throne—the emperor and empreſs followed, and then the nobility of both ſexes, who, moſt ſuperbly dreſſed, were ſeated on each ſide of the cathedral; the centre was occupied by thoſe of the firſt claſs.

"The prayers were performed by the archbiſhop Plato, aſſiſted by the biſhops, whoſe dreſs was uncommonly magnificent; the ceremonies, muſic, &c. engaged a conſiderable time, and after a ſermon, ſuited to the occaſion, two biſhops advanced with the crown, and, under a ſalute of cannon, placed it on the head of the emperor. The emperor then placed a crown of the moſt exquiſite workmanſhip on the empreſs's head, diſcharges of artillery giving weight to the ſolemnity.

"After the ceremonies of the church were over, their majeſties walked round the Kremlin, under a canopy of gold and ſilver, and proceeded to the hall to dinner.

"The cathedral is ſmall, but the ceremony was managed with ſingular preciſion. The Engliſh gentlemen, of whom 17 were preſent, had ſeats aſſigned them, and, to avoid confuſion, were, with all the other ſpectators, except ſuch as formed the proceſſion, obliged to attend at ſeven o'clock in the morning.

"The illuminations of the city continued for three nights. The Kremlin is particularly adapted for ſuch an exhibition, and was uncommonly brilliant.

"The Engliſh and other ſtrangers were preſented to their majeſties on Tueſday,

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Tuesday, and in the evening there was a splendid ball at court.

"The rejoicings are enthusiastic. To-day a fete is to be given to the populace: a large field is enclosed, and tables placed for the accommodation of many thousands, and a profusion of wines and viands are prepared, with a variety of amusements.

"The weather has been, and continues to be, uncommonly favourable."

Thirty thousand persons were entertained at dinner at Moscow on the emperor's coronation: the wine flowed from fountains. The happy event was followed by a proclamation, ordering the suppression of the recruiting service during the remainder of the year, the remission of the fines not collected, and the release of the insolvent debtors of the crown.

The emperor Alexander has issued an ordinance prohibiting, under penalty of imprisonment or the knout, artizans and domestics, of both sexes, from gambling for money, in private houses, taverns, &c. Heads of families, inn-keepers, &c. permitting or conniving at the practice, are subjected to a penalty of 25 florins, for each offender. His majesty has presented 130,000 rubles of silver to the distressed city of Wilna.

The city of Crakow, in Gallicia, has been nearly destroyed by fire.

A letter from Constantinople contains a long account of the rejoicings in that capital, on the arrival of major Hutchinson, brother to the general, with the intelligence of the surrender of Alexandria. The major, after an interview with the caimachan, had the distinguished honour of an audience of two hours of the grand seignior, who has sent a special deputation to congratulate the general: 250 galley slaves have been released, as have also all persons confined for debts not amounting to 150,000 piastres.

12th. A wooden house, which stood on Little Tower-hill, called True Blue, and which was a rendezvous for volunteer seamen, was wilfully set on fire about 11 o'clock this forenoon by some boys, and was burnt down in two hours. Several engines attended, but were not suffered to play, the populace being incensed against it, saying it was a kidnapping house for sailors before they were taken to the tender.

This day a jury sat at the royal hospital public-house on the body of a veteran soldier, who was shot on the morning of the preceding day in Chelsea college. The jury returned a verdict of wilful murder. The prisoner was the same afternoon committed by Mr. Read to Tothill-fields bridewell. It appeared in evidence to the jury, that a misunderstanding had existed between the deceased and the prisoner for near six years, which arose from a difference of opinion relative to the burning of coals allowed by the institution. It is customary to allow coals only in the winter; and, in consequence of this regulation, the pensioners make it a rule to save a small quantity each day for summer use. The prisoner and the deceased occupying the same apartment, and not agreeing in respect to the consumption of the coals, eternal bickerings ensued; and from such trifling causes their disputes frequently arose to such a height, that about two years since a challenge was given and accepted by the parties. This being reported to their commanding offi-

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cer, major Bulkeley, he reaſoned with them, and they then both gave their word of honour to him that the affair ſhould go no farther. The ſeaſon, however, having commenced, and major Bulkeley being lately dead, the like circumſtances produced ſimilar altercations until the day the melancholy cataſtrophe took place. About ſeven o'clock the priſoner aroſe, and after walking up and down the room for about half an hour, took from his bureau a brace of piſtols, and throwing open the door of the deceaſed's cabin, preſented a piſtol in each hand to the deceaſed, ſaying, "Come, you raſcal, behave like a man, and give me ſatisfaction." The deceaſed, who was ſitting upon the end of his bed, replied, "What do you mean?" took one of the piſtols, and threw it with contempt, and ſuch violence, at the priſoner's feet as to break it: the priſoner, farther irritated at this, fired. The ball entered the heart, and paſſed through the body of the deceaſed, who inſtantly expired. The deceaſed, William Lambe, was in his 84th year, and had been many years a ſerjeant in the 25th regiment of foot. The priſoner, James Legge, previous to this unhappy affair, univerſally ſuſtained a fair character. They were both captains, and ſuppoſed to be the beſt ſwordſmen in the college. Legge fought a duel about forty years ago, and killed his man.

Lord Hobart, in a circular letter to all the lord lieutenants in the kingdom, has, by the king's command, expreſſed his majeſty's "deep and laſting ſenſe of their ſteady attachment to our eſtabliſhed conſtitution, and that loyalty, ſpirit, and perſeverance, which have been manifeſted by the ſeveral corps of yeomanry and volunteers in every part of this kingdom."—Farther, that they (the lords lieutenants), at the next meetings of the corps, will, in his majeſty's name, thank them, and requeſt that they will continue themſelves in readineſs for immediate ſervice until the definitive treaty is ſigned, as, till then, it is neceſſary that there ſhould be no relaxation in the preparations which have been made for the general defence. This letter likewiſe directs the ſuſpenſion of the meaſures ordered purſuant to the act of the 38 Geo. III. in the event of invaſion.

DIED—13th. At Blandford, Dorſet, Dr. Richard Pulteney, M. D. F. R. S. &c. author of ſeveral valuable medical and botanical tracts.

NOVEMBER.

2d. James Legge, the old Chelſea penſioner, was tried on Friday laſt, and found guilty of the murder of William Lambe. He was a venerable looking man, conducted himſelf with much firmneſs, and impreſſed every perſon preſent with ſentiments of pity. His ſentence was immediately paſſed, and this morning he was hanged, and his body delivered to be anatomized.

Margate. 5th. Laſt night, at ſeven o'clock, captain Palmer, his eldeſt ſon, captain Harman's eldeſt ſon, a Mr. Smith, and three others, went in queſt of a veſſel to get her into harbour; ſtrong winds in going off ſwampt the boat, when captain Palmer, of the Roſe in June, and his eldeſt ſon, captain Harman's ſon, and Mr. Smith, mate of captain Hilliard's packet, were drowned.

6th. The

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6th. The court of king's-bench was this day moved by Mr. Attorney General, for a rule to ſhew cauſe why a new trial ſhould not be granted in a cauſe between Haycraft, plaintiff, and Creaſy, defendant, tried before Lord Kenyon, at Guildhall, on the 14th of June laſt, and in which a verdict had been given for the plaintiff. "This," ſaid Mr. Attorney General, "was an action againſt the defendant for certain ſuppoſed fraudulent and deceitful aſſertions reſpecting the credit of a woman of the name of Robinſon, made by the defendant, to induce the plaintiff to truſt her. Your lordſhip may recollect a very extraordinary ſtory of a Miſs Robinſon, who pretended to have come into the poſſeſſion of a large eſtate by the death of her mother, and by that means duped nearly the whole of the neighbourhood of Greenwich, and among others the poor currier, my client; he was ſo far impoſed upon, that he lent her conſiderable ſums of money, and at the time ſhe was detected was her creditor for 2000l. It appeared he had lent her this money, being firmly convinced ſhe had the eſtate ſhe pretended to have from a variety of circumſtances, particularly from ſeeing pictures and plans of the Faſcally eſtate, as it was called, in Scotland, hung up in her rooms; from letters ſhe ſhewed him, from her ſuppoſed ſteward in the north, reſpecting new buildings that were to be erected, and wood that was to be cut down; and, above all, from her taking a large and ſplendid manſion at Blackheath, in the decorations of which no expenſe ſeemed to be ſpared; the firſt artiſts had been employed in painting the ceilings, and every thing that luxury and art could invent, or wealth ſupply, were laviſhed in the embelliſhments of her palace. All this, before the eyes of the unfortunate currier, and other credulous perſons, induced a belief ſhe was the opulent perſon ſhe pretended to be. Nay, ſhe went ſo far as to give powers of attorney to receive her rents, which ſhe ſaid had been forty years in arrears. Every one was induſtrious in aſſiſting her with money. Your lordſhip muſt recollect there was one lady who ſold out ſtock to the amount of 500l. in order to accommodate her. In fact, ſhe ſucceeded in cheating every body but her landlord, Mr. Cator, who availed himſelf of his right to diſtrain. The queſtion I would ſubmit to your lordſhip is, that this man was innocent of any purpoſe of deception, but that he was deceived himſelf. The queſtion upon the trial was, whether, as he had taken upon himſelf to ſay he had knowledge of the fact of her having an eſtate, his being deceived was an excuſe for him, with regard to the perſon who, on his repreſentation, had been induced to give her credit? This queſtion does not range itſelf with any to be found in our books. The point I would ſubmit is, whether a perſon, affirming that he knows a fact, upon ſuch probable grounds as fairly induce a belief, can ſubject him to an action if his repreſentation turns out untrue?"

Lord KENYON—"You may take a rule to ſhew cauſe.—There is one circumſtance you will recollect, I mean the evidence of the defendant's declaration. I find, upon referring to my note of the trial, that I have taken the very words, and marked

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under them:—they are, "I can positively, on my own knowledge, assure you, that you may safely credit Miss Robinson; I know she has come into possession of a large estate."

A rule to shew cause was granted.

8th. The new lord mayor being this day sworn in at Guildhall, an elegant entertainment was given to the court of aldermen at the mansion-house by sir William Staines, who, after dinner, on his health being proposed, thus addressed the company: "Gentlemen, I beg that you will accept my warmest thanks for the honour done me in drinking my health. I assure you with truth, that these thanks flow from a grateful heart, when I look back on my past life, and know that I have been advanced literally from a dunghill to the chief magistracy of this great city. I bow down with gratitude to Providence. Providence, ever gracious, ordains all things! Providence superintends all things: Providence giveth wisdom to a fool, Providence giveth strength to the weak. In my humble exertions to fulfil the various duties of that high and important office, from which I am about to retire, if I have the good fortune to merit your approbation, and to have given satisfaction to my fellow-citizens at large, I retire with pleasure, again to enjoy the comfort and happiness of domestic society. I hope to spend the remainder of my days in peace; and, when the time comes, I shall die content."

9th. The lord mayor's procession took place this day, in the usual order, and attracted immense crowds of people. The city was thronged at an early hour to see the procession from Guildhall to the water side.—A few minutes before one sir John Eamer, the new lord mayor, the aldermen, the sheriffs, and the common council, went into their barges at Blackfriars-bridge, and were rowed to Westminster, where they landed at twenty minutes past one. After being sworn in, at half past two o'clock his lordship and the procession left Westminster, and returned to Blackfriars-bridge. At half after three the lord-mayor, the sheriffs, &c. proceeded in their splendid carriages to Guildhall, preceded by the colours, the livery companies, and escorted by the grenadiers and light infantry of the West London militia. The music and the procession, with the fineness of the day, rendered the sight very splendid. The bridges were covered with people; but in Bridge-street, Blackfriars, it was almost possible to walk on the people's heads. The press of such a numerous assemblage produced some confusion; but, owing to the vigilance of the officers, civil as well as military, no accident happened. The cause of the great throng in Bridge-street was owing to the man in armour, who, it was said, would make his appearance there in public about three o'clock. In fact, he did appear soon after, mounted on a bay horse, led by a boy, who wore a breast-plate of armour. This man, in armour bright, for it literally glittered in the sun, was of an uncommonly athletic make, in appearance above six feet high; his face (for he wore his helmet up) was handsome, but wanted that martial appearance necessary on the occasion. After parading about thirty yards towards Blackfriars-bridge, he returned to his station in Bride-lane, Bridge-street.

The

The lord mayor and the company arrived at Guildhall at half paſt four. The lord chancellor joined the proceſſion in an elegant new ſtate coach. The carriage of the late lord mayor (Mr. Alderman Staines) was drawn by the populace, and Mr. Alderman Combe had the like honour conferred on him. Viſcount admiral lord Nelſon, accompanied by ſir William Hamilton, in ſir William's carriage, was drawn to Guildhall by the populace, who greeted his lordſhip with repeated plaudits, and ſtopped the carriage ſeveral times to have the gratification of ſeeing him. The foreign ambaſſadors, the chancellor of the exchequer, earl Chatham, the ſecretary at war, and a numerous company of nobility, were invited to the civic banquet at Guildhall.

The proceſſion having concluded in a ſtyle of pageantry unknown to modern civic exhibitions, the lord mayor, with the whole of the conſtituent parts of the corporation, entered Guildhall, where a magnificent entertainment was provided. The hall was illuminated in the moſt ſplendid ſtyle; at the upper end, over the huſtings, was a tranſparency, extremely well executed, of Peace, in the midſt of four allegorical figures, repreſenting the quarters of the globe, who ſeemed to return their acknowledgments for the bleſſings ſhowered upon them. This tranſparency was decorated with a frame of lamps, which produced a very brilliant effect. At the lower end of the hall, the word PEACE ſhone conſpicuous. There were emblematic tranſparencies, but by no means well executed. The ſplendour of the Gothic hall was principally confined to that part which forms what is called the Huſtings, the whole of which was appropriated to the accommodation of the noble and dignified viſitants who honoured the lord mayor with their company. The moſt conſpicuous perſonage who graced the feſtival was citizen Otto. The moment he entered the hall he was ſaluted with burſts of applauſe, indicative of the popular ſentiment which the peace, of which he had been the harbinger, had produced.

10th. Yeſterday, in the court of king's-bench, the church-wardens of the pariſh of Beckenham, in Kent, who had been impriſoned, for making an improper rate, and ordered to be brought up on the 3d day of term, were diſcharged; it appearing they had now done all in their power to ſatisfy public juſtice; and that they had been ſtimulated by a gentleman, who paid 100l. towards their law coſts, but would not pay the remaining 97l. which they had been forced to borrow of their friends.

Accounts have been received of a moſt tremendous ſtorm, that has ravaged the Swediſh, Daniſh, and German coaſts. The ſtorm took place on the 3d, and continued with formidable violence for ſome hours. The accounts from Copenhagen ſtate, that a Daniſh frigate and ſeveral other ſhips were either driven aſhore or much damaged. From Elſineur we learn, that ſeveral ſhips have been driven from their anchors, and that many have been blown out of the Cattegat. The Cuxhaven accounts of the 4th, repreſent the ſtorm to have been equally deſtructive on that coaſt. It began in the night, and at daybreak ſeveral ſhips were ſeen ſtranded, from Altenbruch to Otterndorf. The ſtorm did great damage on

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ſhore, at Copenhagen, Elſineur, and Cuxhaven, and the miſeries of the inhabitants of Stockholm were aggravated by a fire, which deſtroyed above 30 houſes.

The following wager, between two gentlemen of fortune and reſpectability, excited a conſiderable portion of the public intereſt:

Mr. Barclay, of Ury, in Scotland, betted 5000l. that he would go ninety miles in 21¼ ſucceſſive hours; which was to include time for refreſhment, change of clothes, and every ſtoppage that Mr. B. might think needful to make. The match was made ſome time ſince between the above gentleman and Mr. Fletcher, a gentleman well known on the turf, to be decided in the month of November; Mr. Barclay to give eight days notice of the day on which he was to ſtart. The agreement ſtated, that he was to go the above number of miles in 21¼ ſucceſſive hours of one day. The time was accordingly fixed for Tueſday the 10th inſtant. The ground choſen by Mr. Barclay, on which he was to decide the bet, was the ſpace of one mile on the high road between York and Hull, about 16 miles from the former place. The ground was meaſured by the contracting parties, and a poſt fixed at the end of the mile, which, in turning, required of Mr. Barclay about one pace and a half each mile, but which was not reckoned in the meaſurement. Perſons were ſtationed at the winning poſt to notch down the rounds, and obſerve that every thing was done in a fair manner. On each ſide of the road were placed a number of lamps, on purpoſe to give light during the night. A few minutes before twelve o'clock, on Monday night, Mr. Barclay, with ſeveral of his friends, appeared on the ground, as did alſo Mr. Fletcher. Preciſely at twelve ſix ſtop watches were ſet, put in a box at the winning end, and the box ſealed; Mr. Barclay ſtarting at the time. He wore a flannel cloſe ſhirt, flannel trowſers, and night-cap, lamb-wool ſtockings, and large leather ſhoes, rather thick in the ſoles. He went the firſt two miles in twenty-five minutes ten ſeconds, and continued nearly at the ſame rate, till he had gone 16 miles, varying only a few ſeconds each round of two miles. Here he halted. The houſe into which he went to refreſh was ſituated on the right ſide of the courſe, about ten yards from the road ſide, and which, in going in and coming out, made twenty yards, but which Mr. Barclay did not wiſh to be included in the diſtance. Mr. Barclay remained about ten minutes in taking refreſhment and changing clothes, proceeded with his match, went fifteen miles more, and then refreſhed and changed as before. It was now ſeven o'clock in the morning, which was rather hazy. Mr. Barclay appeared dull from the dampneſs of the night-air. Betting, however, was two to one, and five to two, in his favour. After refreſhing, he again ſet out, appeared more cheerful, and went ſixteen or ſeventeen miles more with much apparent ſtrength; going each two miles in about twenty-five minutes twenty ſeconds. By eleven o'clock he had gone fifty miles, and appeared to proceed on his courſe with greater eaſe and vigour. Betting was now four and five to one in his favour. When he had gone ſixty miles he ſtopped to refreſh and change clothes, remained about ten minutes

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minutes in the houſe, and came out in high ſpirits, with much cheerfulneſs in his countenance. Betting increaſed, in his favour, ſix and ſeven to one. He proceeded till he had gone ſeventy miles, hardly varying in regularly performing each round of two miles in about twenty-five minutes and a half, when he again refreſhed and changed clothes, appeared well and ſtrong, and proceeded with his match in a gallant ſtyle. He refreſhed twice more, viz. when he had gone ſeventy-eight and eighty-four miles, and performed the whole by twenty-two minutes four ſeconds paſt eight o'clock on Tueſday evening, being one hour, ſeven minutes, fifty-ſix ſeconds, within the ſpecified time.—What is rather deſerving of notice is, that he went three ſucceſſive rounds of two miles in exactly the ſame time, viz. twenty-five minutes and fifteen ſeconds. When he came in he was ſtrong and hearty, and ſaid he found himſelf ſo well as to be able to go twenty miles farther. Thouſands on foot and horſe attended during the courſe of his walking. When he finiſhed he was loudly huzzaed, and carried on the ſhoulders of the multitude. Every attention was paid to him during the performance of his match; carriages, mail-coaches, waggons, people on horſeback and on foot, all went to the ſides of the road in order to leave him a free paſſage. He never met with the leaſt interruption; all ſeemed to wiſh him well. The Weſt York militia, who were on their route from Hull to York, halted and filed in ſingle diviſions to the ſides of the road, and left him a clear paſſage, which had a moſt ſingular effect.

It appears on the whole, that Mr. Barclay, after deducting the time he took for refreſhment, &c. went the ninety miles in little more than nineteen hours, excluſive of the extra yards in going and coming from the houſe, and in turning the poſts. The weather, except from about four to ſeven in the morning, was very favourable.

Mr. Barclay had been in training for ſome time before ſtarting, under the well-known Mr. John Smith, of Oulſton, near Eaſingwould. Mr. Smith's ſon, a young man about nineteen years of age, went the laſt thirty miles with Mr. Barclay, in order to keep company with him, and which he went with much credit to himſelf and every appearance of future performance. Mr. Barclay is about twenty-two years of age, ſtout made, and about five feet eleven inches high. He walked much in the manner of the celebrated Powell. The ground he choſe had ſeveral gentle riſings; when he came to theſe he in general made a ſort of a run up, the other parts he moſtly walked. He ate very heartily when he ſtopped; his food was boiled fowls, mutton ſteaks, &c. his drink ſtrong old beer.

After the concluſion of the match Mr. Barclay remained for the night at the houſe where he ſtopped to refreſh; next morning he drove to Pocklington, where he was welcomed by ringing of bells and every demonſtration of joy.

The following letter has been ſent by the above gentleman, ſince his return to Scotland:

To Mr. Bartholoman, Editor of the York Herald.

Dear Sir,

Permit me, through the medium of your paper, to expreſs the high gratitude I feel for the very polite and

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and attentive behaviour I experienced from all ranks during the whole performance of my match, againſt time, on the 10th inſtant. Indeed, the generous attention I received while at Mr. Smith's, the anxious ſolicitude and concern ſhewn by all on the above day, that nothing ſhould interrupt or obſtruct the courſe—and the handſome treatment I afterwards met with from the inhabitants, in returning home through Pocklington and other places, have left on my memory an impreſſion of ſuch grateful ſentiments, as death only can eraſe.

I beg to remain, dear ſir,
Much yours and theirs,
R. BARCLAY.

Ury, Scotland, Nov. 17, 1801.

On referring to one of our earlier volumes, we find there recorded the greater effort of a ſoldier, who walked from London to Briſtol within the ſame number of hours.

Lord Cornwallis arrived before Calais in a very ſtormy evening. The greateſt anxiety prevailed throughout Calais for his ſafety, as the ſea was uncommonly agitated; but he and his ſuite fortunately landed without experiencing any accident, about ten o'clock at night, in the midſt of heavy rain and darkneſs. The latter was ſoon diſpelled by an immenſe number of torches and lights, and the commandant of the marine, who had gone to reconnoitre whether marquis Cornwallis had actually arrived, gave a ſignal; on which twelve guns, fired by fort Rouge, were followed by a general diſcharge of artillery belonging to the other forts, and the veſſels of the republic in the port, as well as by the ringing of all the bells. A guard of honour was appointed for him at the hotel, the Silver Lion; and all the conſtituted authorities waited on him to pay their reſpects next morning. About three o'clock the ſame day he ſet off for Boulogne.

Dublin. 12th. This evening Thomas Barry, eſq. of North Frederic-ſtreet, was found murdered, in the evening, in his own houſe; his brains were beat out in a moſt ſavage manner, and the place robbed. Mr. Barry was a gentleman of immenſe property. Upon intimation of his murder, G. Heptenſtal, eſq. coroner of the county of Dublin, and one of its magiſtrates, came to the place and made the moſt ſtrict inveſtigation, but found it neceſſary to defer holding an inqueſt until Thurſday. The unfortunate gentleman had dined at home; a bottle and glaſs were found on the table in the room where he was killed. Mr. Heptenſtal found in the houſe property, in ſcrip, to the amount of 35,000l. which eſcaped the murderers. Mr. Barry, at the commencement of the war, was a partner in the houſe of Barton, &c. at Bourdeaux, but withdrew his property afterwards.

21ſt. Vice-admiral ſir William Parker was this day tried at Portſmouth by a court-martial, on a charge of having authorized his ſon-in-law, captain Bingham, to cruize in the America, of 64 guns, beyond the limits of his (admiral Parker's) command, on the Halifax ſtation, with the view, as it was inſinuated, of making prizes. If the America had returned ſafely, there would probably have been no complaint; but ſhe got into a current, and was loſt. A court of inquiry ſat upon captain Bingham, and acquitted him of all blame in the loſs of the ſhip; but a queſtion ariſing how the ſhip came into

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into that part of the world, admiral Parker was called upon to anſwer it. After hearing the whole caſe on both ſides, the court was of opinion that the admiral was juſtified in ſending the America and Cleopatra to the Weſt Indies; but that he was indiſcreet in the detailed inſtructions for their return within the limits of their ſtation: but the court declared the general character of ſir William to be ſuch as to preclude the idea of his having been influenced by any motive not connected with the good of his majeſty's ſervice, and therefore moſt honourably acquitted him.

24th. A long expected pugiliſtic exhibition took place this day, between two men of the names of Belcher and Bourke; the ſcene of action was by appointment at Harley-bottom, ſeven miles beyond Maidenhead, on the road to Henley, where a ſtage was erected, twenty-four feet ſquare, in a low ſituation, ſo that the ſurrounding ground commanded a good view. Vaſt number of poſt-chaiſes, buggies, and carriages, ſome with four, ſome ſix horſes, arrived in Maidenhead from London about nine o'clock in the morning; but on the previous night, large parties went to Maidenhead, which was ſo filled, that beds at laſt could not be procured on any account. The moſt diſtinguiſhed perſons preſent were, lord Say and Sele, ſir Thomas Apreece, and colonel Montgomery. The whole boxing corps were preſent; but the great majority conſiſted of not the moſt reputable part of the metropolis. The ſcene for the fight was ſo choſen, that if the magiſtrates of one county had interrupted it, the parties had their choice of ſeveral other counties, within half an hour's ride. The fight was for one hundred guineas a ſide, to take place between the hours of ten and twelve. Belcher ſlept at the Sun, at Maidenhead, the preceding night; and Bourke at the Bear.

About eleven o'clock the parties proceeded from Maidenhead to the ground, in different poſt-chaiſes, followed by a great cavalcade; the number of ſpectators at the fight amounting to about two thouſand; the diſtance of the place from London 35 miles. Belcher appeared firſt on the ſtage, and Bourke ſoon after. In about ten minutes they ſtripped, and at ſix minutes paſt twelve o'clock commenced the fight. In their clothes the parties appeared to be much of a ſize, being nearly of a height: but when ſtripped Bourke was by far the larger man, and apparently the ſtronger, though Belcher was very muſcular and well made.

The fight laſted 21 minutes, very little repoſe being given between the rounds. Bourke at firſt fought with great eagerneſs, but after the 10th round he betrayed weakneſs. Not much ſcience was diſplayed by either. There was very little betting on the ground, the opinion being ſo ſtrongly in favour of Belcher, that few would back Bourke. One gentleman loſt 200l. on Bourke. Bourke was immediately put into a poſt-chaiſe, and left ſtanding on the ground half an hour, while another fight took place. Belcher only received one blow on the face, which left any appearance of his being hurt. Bourke made one unfair attempt during the fight, by attempting to lift up Belcher by the leg, that he might throw him down with the greater force. Belcher, who had

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had fully eſtabliſhed his reputation before, has now proved himſelf the beſt man in England. He diſplayed wonderful activity and courage, but not an equal portion of ſkill—Bourke was ſtill leſs ſkilful. All the amateurs declared this to be the ſevereſt battle that has been fought ſince the famous combat between Big Ben and Johnſon.

DIED—29th. In diſtreſs, the once celebrated actreſs, Mrs. Crawford (formerly Mrs. Barry).

DECEMBER.

2d. A cauſe was this day tried in the court of king's bench, wherein, one Weſton was plaintiff, and Capt. Reay, defendant.

Mr. Garrow ſtated, that this was an action for an aſſault, to which the defendant had pleaded, that he being captain of the Dublin Eaſt Indiaman, and the plaintiff having conducted himſelf in a riotous and mutinous manner, he had moderately corrected him, and ordered him to be impriſoned. The plaintiff before he had the misfortune to receive the injury of which he complained, was a gentleman's ſervant, and had gone to the Cape of Good Hope with ſir George Young; but not liking his ſituation, he wiſhed to come to Europe; his maſter procured him a paſſage in the Dublin Eaſt Indiaman as a charter-party paſſenger, and as ſuch he was bound to no employment on board the ſhip. After he had embarked, an officer, who was paſſenger in the Indiaman, applied to him to do various little offices as his ſervant, which, as he was diſpoſed to earn ſomething on his paſſage, he conſented to. On the 17th of April, 1800, he was ſent to the poop to bruſh this gentleman's coat, but was ordered away by the mate. Not being acquainted with the cuſtoms neceſſary to be obſerved on board a ſhip, he was coming down from the poop to the quarter deck by the ladder on the windward or weather ſide, inſtead of the one to the leeward. The mate, Mr. Davy, turned him round, and deſired him to go to leeward, which he was ſubmiſſively preparing to do, when the captain came out of his cabin, collared him, and, without any explanation whatever, called to the boatſwain to bring a point (a rope doubled with knots at the end), and give the plaintiff a 'ſtarting.'—The boatswain brought ſuch a rope as the captain deſired, and ſeizing this poor creature, who had nothing on but a thin linen jacket, inflicted upon him no leſs than forty-four blows; a diſcipline infinitely more ſevere than the ordinary puniſhment in the navy by the cat-o'-nine tails. The plaintiff aſked the captain if he meant to murder him; to which he only replied by ſaying to the boatſwain, "D—n the raſcal, lay it on—don't ſpare him— give him plenty—he ſeems to like it." At laſt the boatſwain left off, merely becauſe he was fatigued and out of breath; and while the plaintiff was creeping away, the captain called him back, and ordered him to the poop, where he remained in a ſtate of arreſt for ſeveral hours. When the ſhip arrived in the Downs, the defendant procured the plaintiff to be impreſſed, and it was in conſequence of his having been ſent to the Eaſt Indies on board a man of war that the preſent action had been ſo long delayed.

Robert Bancroft, the captain's ſervant, and ſeveral of the crew, fully confirmed this ſtatement. They added,

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added, that there was not the leaſt diſpoſition on the part of the plaintiff, or any one elſe in the ſhip, to mutiny.

Lord Kenyon ſaid, it was abſolutely neceſſary that the diſcipline of the navy ſhould be preſerved, and whenever actions of this ſort were brought, he had always a leaning in favour of the officer; but in the preſent inſtance, the defendant had made out no one allegation contained in his plea; he thought the jury were bound to give the plaintiff damages, which ſhould recompenſe him for the injury he had received; at the ſame time they ought not to be ſo inflamed as to ruin the defendant. The jury retired for about half an hour, and returned a verdict for the plaintiff, with 500l. damages. It appeared, however, that the damages laid in the declaration amounted only to 200l. of courſe the verdict of the jury could extend no farther.

5th. A cauſe of conſiderable importance was this day tried before ſir Simon Le Blanc and a ſpecial jury, at Guildhall; it was an action brought by a Mr. Kerſlake againſt the Weſtminſter inſurance office, to recover 360l. inſured by a policy on the life of a Mr. Robſon. The cauſe had been tried before, and a verdict given for the plaintiff. The following is a brief ſtatement of the leading points. Mr. Robſon propoſed to the plaintiff to grant an annuity of 50l. for 360l.; the plaintiff conſented, on condition he inſured his life; and accordingly Mr. Robſon, by his agent, effected a policy on the 21ſt of March, 1798, under a warranty, that he was in good health, and not more than twenty-three years of age. The ſtate of his health prior to the inſurance on his life was this: he was a man of ſlender make and thin habit of body, and in Auguſt, 1797, had a ſlight hæmorrhage from the lungs, for which he was attended by an apothecary of the name of Le Brune. He became perfectly well; but in February, 1799, he had a return of the complaint to a more violent degree. He was attended by the ſame apothecary, and the next day by Dr. Carmichael Smith, under whoſe advice he was perfectly reſtored. On the 21ſt of March this policy was effected. In the autumn he went to the North, to viſit his father, and, upon a ſhooting excurſion, got wet through; the conſequence of which was, he fell into a gradual decline, and died in about two months. The office reſiſted the payment of the policy, on the ground, that although Mr. Robſon might not have a diſorder tending to ſhortening life at the time it was inſured, yet, that he laboured under a prediſpoſition to a conſumption, which rendered his life not an inſurable one. Upon the firſt trial Dr. Smith and Mr. Le Brune expreſsly ſtated, that Mr. Robſon had none of the ſymptoms which indicated a conſumption; but they admitted, an hæmorrhage from the lungs was ſuch a prediſpoſition to that diſorder as made it neceſſary he ſhould be circumſpect with regard to his manner of living. Dr. Reynolds, and ſeveral eminent gentlemen of the faculty, were of opinion, that the ſymptoms deſcribed were ſuch a prediſpoſition to conſumption as vitiated an inſurance upon his life under a warranty of general good health. Lord Kenyon, who tried the cauſe, gave a ſtrong charge to the jury in favour of the defendant; but the jury, after a long conſultation, returned their verdict for

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for the plaintiff. A new trial was moved for and obtained. Mr. Erſkine was for the plaintiff, and the attorney general for the defendant. The ſame evidence was given as before on both ſides; and after ſir Simon Le Blanc had ſummed it up, the jury, with very little heſitation, confirmed the former verdict; the foreman expreſsly declaring they were of opinion, Mr. Robſon, notwithſtanding his prediſpoſition to a particular diſorder, was in good health when the policy was effected; and that no fraud, deceit, or covin, was practiſed on the office.

At the aſſizes, held laſt week, at Naas, in Ireland, a father and ſon, named Mooney, were convicted, and ordered for ſpeedy execution, for robbing the Cork mail. It was one of the moſt daring robberies ever attempted of the kind. The mail-coach was ſtrongly eſcorted; but theſe deſperadoes, accompanied by ſix or ſeven others, fired a volley from behind a wall, with ſuch effect on the eſcort, as wounded ſeveral, and made the reſt fly, on which they immediately plundered the mail of property to a conſiderable amount. One of the gang was hanged a few months ſince for the ſame robbery.

14th. This being the grand day for exhibiting the prize oxen at Smithfield, the attendance was very numerous. As early as nine o'clock the ſhew commenced; from that hour till four the place of exhibition was not free from company. The number of perſons, who paid a ſhilling each, at the George, where the prize cattle and ſheep were ſhewn, amounted to nine hundred and eighty. This prize-ox is conſidered ſuperior to the one bred about two years ſince by the ſame gentleman (Mr. Weſtcard), which was exhibited about a year and a half ago at the ſame place. The colour of the preſent ox was white: he was eight feet in length, and ſix feet acroſs the back; in height eighteen hands; and weighed near 300 ſtone, reckoning eight pounds to the ſtone. Mr. Chapman, of Fleet-market, was the purchaſer. The ſum given for this noble animal was no leſs than 160l. This ox was exhibited dead at the George-Inn, Smithfield, on Friday. The duke of Bedford's ox won the ſecond prize, conſequently he was determined the ſecond beſt in England. The colour of this animal was brown: he was ſeven feet in length, and ſix in breadth, and weighed 250 ſtone. This ox was not ſold: the duke's price was one hundred guineas. The other four oxen, which were fattened by Mr. Weſtcard, of Ayleſbury, were bought by Mr. Chapman, of Fleet-market, and Mr. Giblet, of Bond-ſtreet. It is ſuppoſed the above weighed each full 200 ſtone; they were all brought to town on Friday laſt. The whole ſix were fed on oil-cakes and turnips, with a proportion of graſs and hay.

15th. The rev. William Fennel, of Walford, near Newberry, was awakened, about two o'clock, by his chamber being filled with ſmoke: when, inſtantly riſing, he found the houſe in flames. He took his wife in his arms (whom horror had rendered motionleſs), and deſcended the ſtairs, which were already on fire. The nurſery-maid, who ſlept in the next room, being alarmed, followed him with his youngeſt child, about five months old; but the flames were ſo rapid as to prevent his

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his ſaving his eldeſt, a fine girl near ſeven years of age, who, with an old lady, upwards of eighty, mother of Mrs. Fennel, periſhed, while the unfortunate parents were ſpectators of their ſhocking misfortune, without being able to render them any aſſiſtance, or ſave one article of their property, which was uninſured. The houſe was entirely burnt to the ground.

17th. A moſt dreadful accident happened at Mr. Dockera's worſted ſpinning-mill, at the Holme, near New-church, Roſſendale, Yorkſhire: A number of the work-people went to divert themſelves on the ice of the mill-dam; but in conſequence of their collecting together, the ice gave way, and, before aſſiſtance could be procured, eight of thoſe unfortunate people were drowned: amongſt them was a man about ſeventy years of age, who, in attempting to ſave ſome of them, fell into the water, and periſhed with the reſt.

20th. About one o'clock a young man, calling himſelf Maurice Williams, went to the Hummums, Covent-garden, and aſked for a bed. He ſlept till eleven o'clock that day, when the waiter knocked at his apartments, and offered him what refreſhment he might think proper for breakfaſt, which the ſtranger refuſed. Finding that there was no appearance of riſing, the waiter began to entertain apprehenſions of the health of the lodger, and, conſequently, returned about three o'clock in the afternoon to ſatisfy himſelf of the fact. The ſtranger ſtill refuſed any attention, and aſſured the waiter that all he wanted was a little more repoſe. About ſix o'clock, however, he got up, and walked round the room ſeveral times, and locked the door. The waiter increaſing in curioſity, if not anxiety, returned to the door about ſeven o'clock, when he found it ſtill locked, and concluded that his gueſt had returned to bed.—About ten, both maſter and waiter expreſſed their fears; and the former, calling in the evidence of ſome neighbours for the inveſtigation of the myſtery, at laſt broke open the door, when they diſcovered the ſtranger ſitting as it were upright in a chair, but lifeleſs, with his head reclining backwards, and a piſtol lying upon the floor. So far as a judgement could be formed of this melancholy event, Mr. Williams had placed the piſtol under his right ear, and then lodged its contents in the jugular artery. The coroner's jury have pronounced a verdict of lunacy.

26th. At Covent-garden theatre the holiday folks were inclined to be miſchievous: as ſoon as the curtain drew up to commence the play of Richard the Third, a wine glaſs was throw on the ſtage by way of prologue, but without exciting much obſervation. A few minutes after, determined to attract notice, a quart bottle was thrown from the two ſhilling gallery on the ſtage; it grazed the hat of Mr. Betterton, who was playing Treſſel to Murray's Henry VI. knocked out ſome of the jewels, and falling on the ſtage, rolled down to the lamps unbroken. The audience were thunder-ſtruck, the play ſtood ſtill, and for a few ſeconds every one gazed with amazement. Satisfied of what had been done, a general burſt of indignation broke out over the houſe, and "throw him over!" "turn him out!" were vociferated from all quarters. The villain was pointed out by his neighbours, ſit-

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ting in the front row of the two ſhilling gallery, in the bend on the king's ſide. He was ſeized, the people in the pit and boxes riſing up, and conſiderable agitation prevailing. The fellow, who was drunk, held by the iron railing, that goes round the front of the gallery, and refuſed to retire: this provoked the reſentment againſt him ſtill more, and the cries of vengeance were loud and general. Three or four laid hold of him, and ſeemed as if they would drag rail and all away; at laſt, they ſucceeded in taking him out of the theatre.

30th. Yeſterday afternoon, about three o'clock, the inhabitants in the neighbourhood of Old Cavendiſh-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-ſquare, were alarmed by frequent ſhrieks of a female voice, apparently iſſuing from the back part of the counteſs of Pembroke's houſe, in Cavendiſh-ſquare, and ſoon after an alarming fire broke out, through the roof, from one of the attics, which in a ſhort time ſpread to the front of the houſe, and communicated with the ſhutters of the two pair floor. Every aſſiſtance was immediately given by the ſpectators, and in leſs than half an hour the pictures, and moſt of the valuable furniture, were removed into the court-yard of a nobleman's houſe oppoſite. The engines arrived ſoon after; but a want of water occaſioned ſome delay: however before five o'clock the Sun, the Weſtminſter, and the Phœnix, were brought into play. The flames had, by this time, conſumed the back part of the houſe, and were making rapid advances to the deſtruction of the front. About ſix o'clock the main beams of the ſecond floor gave way; they fell end-ways with a horrid craſh upon the floor of the drawing-room, where they burnt furiouſly. It was ſeven o'clock before the engines had any effect on the fire, by which hour the upper part of the houſe was entirely deſtroyed; the roof having fallen in ſome time previous. It was owing, in a great degree, to the difficulty of breaking the windows to come at the fire, that a ſtop was not ſooner put to the conflagration. This difficulty was at laſt ſurmounted, by carrying a pipe to the top of the adjoining houſe, and playing from the parapet. Still the flames adhered to the ſtaircaſe, and the firſt floor window-ſhutters, where it had effected a lodgment, and alſo on the main beams which ſupported the houſe. No other remedy remained than that of introducing the pipe through the hall, and playing from the ſtaircaſe on the fire immediately over head, pieces of the burning timbers falling continually. One of the firemen had the temerity to expoſe himſelf in that ſituation. By perſeverance and indefatigable induſtry, the farther progreſs of the flames was put a ſtop to by eight o'clock. The damage done is not known. The lower part of the houſe, viz. the parlours, the hall, and the kitchens, eſcaped the general deſtruction. The cauſe of the accident is ſaid to have ariſen from the airing of the beds, as the family was expected in town from Glouceſterſhire this morning. Two houſe-maids were in the houſe, and it is ſaid that one of them left the pan of coals in the back garret bed, having gone down ſtairs in a hurry and forgot it. When ſhe recollected herſelf, ſhe ran up ſtairs, but found the bed on fire: alarmed at the circumſtances, ſhe went into fits, and

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when she recovered endeavoured by her screams to alarm her fellow-servant, who, frightened, ran out into the streets to call for assistance.—During this time the fire made rapid strides, and burst out in the manner already described. Happily no lives were lost, nor did any other accident happen.

DIED—26th. Mr. Rush, the surgeon, aged 50: his death was occasioned by an obstruction which settled on the kidneys, and introduced a mortification in the bowels. Mr. Rush stood high in the opinion of the world as a professional man: his private character was very amiable. During the American war he, by his skill and attention to the officers and men in the West Indies and America, saved many valuable lives. This conduct so endeared him to the army, that on his return home he was much noticed by the commanding officers, and in 1798 was promoted to be inspector-general of regimental hospitals. Mr. Rush has left a good fortune behind him.

BIRTHS *in the Year* 1801.

Jan. 2d. Lady Grant, a daughter.

13th. Hon. Mrs. Cornwall, a daughter.

15th. Lady Mary Anne Sturt, a daughter.

22d. Lady of W. Manning, esq. M. P. a daughter.

Countess of Stahrenberg, a son.

24th. Lady Charlotte Lenox, a son.

Countess of Westmoreland, a daughter.

27th. Hon. Mrs. George Villiers, a son.

29th. Lady Ann Hope, a son.

Lady of sir E. O'Brien, bart. a son and heir.

Lady of sir John Douglas, a daughter.

Feb. 3d. Lady of sir W. Langham, bart. a daughter.

9th. Lady of the hon. G. Gunning, M. P. a son.

12th. Lady of William Stephen Poyntz, esq. M. P. a son.

21st. Countess of Errol, a son.

23d. Lady Viscountess St. Asaph, a son.

24th. Lady Louisa Brome, a son.

Lady of sir George Armytage, bart. a daughter.

March 2d. Countess of Guildford, a son and heir.

23d. Countess of Derby, a daughter.

Lady William Beauclerc, a son.

25th. Marchioness of Bath, a daughter.

Lady Bruce, a daughter.

Lady of sir Hector Mackenzie, bart. a daughter.

Countess of Harborough, a daughter.

Lady of sir Charles Watson, bart. a daughter.

April 6th. Lady of W. Baker, esq. M. P. a daughter.

Lady of G. H. Rose, esq. M. P. a son.

Lady Caroline Stuart Wortley, a son.

Lady of viscount Belgrave, a son.

Lady of the right hon. George Canning, M. P. a son.

Lady Lucy Bridgeman, a son and daughter.

Lady of sir J. Lawson, bart. a son.

18th. The empress of Germany, a princess.

Lady of B. Hobhouse, esq. M. P. a daughter.

25th. Lady Elizabeth Palk, a son.

Lady of sir Charles Oakley, bart. a son.

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Viſcounteſs Charleville, a ſon.

Lady of ſir Grenville Temple, bart. a ſon.

Lady Le Deſpencer, a ſon.

Lady Anne Aſtley, a ſon.

Lady of John Denniſon, eſq. M. P. a ſon.

May 5th. Lady of ſir Home Popham, a ſon.

6th. Lady of ſir John Orde, a daughter.

11th. Hon. lady Dallas, a daughter.

17th. The counteſs of Talbot, a daughter.

21ſt. Lady of H. Thornton, eſq. M. P. a daughter.

Queen of Sweden, a princeſs.

Lady of lord Francis Godolphin Oſborne, a ſon.

June 2d. Counteſs of Lucan, a ſon.

Lady of ſir Brook Bridges, bart. a ſon and heir.

3d. Marchioneſs of Wincheſter, a ſon.

6th. Marchioneſs of Bute, a daughter.

17th. Counteſs of Sutherland, a ſon.

19th. Lady Templetown, a daughter.

24th. Lady of Edmund Wigley, eſq. M. P. a daughter.

Lady of ſir John Fagg, bart. a ſon.

Queen of Pruſſia, a prince.

Counteſs of Granard, a ſon.

Lady Charlotte Baillie, a daughter.

Lady Burnet, a ſon.

Lady Mary Murray, a ſon.

Lady Helen Hall, a daughter.

Lady of ſir William Clayton, bart. a ſon.

July 7th. Lady Folkſtone, a daughter.

8th. Lady Amherſt, a daughter.

10th. Lady Leſlie, a daughter.

Lady of R. S. Milnes, eſq. M. P. a daughter.

18th. Ducheſs of Leeds, a daughter.

19th. Lady Elizabeth Halliday, a daughter.

26th. Lady of John Agnew, eſq. M. P. a daughter.

Auguſt. At her houſe in Groſvenor-ſtreet, the lady who was married at Rome, and afterwards at St. George's, Hanover-ſquare, to prince Auguſtus Frederic, a daughter.

Lady Catharine Foreſter, a ſon.

Counteſs of Glaſgow, a daughter.

Lady Harriet Gill, a ſon.

Lady Charlotte Campbell, a ſon.

Lady Amelia Kaye, a ſon.

Counteſs of Caithneſs, a ſon.

At Conſtantinople, the lady of lord Elgin, Engliſh ambaſſador there, a daughter, who was immediately inoculated with the cow-pock.

Sept. 4th. Lady of ſir H. Harpur, bart. a ſon.

Lady Harriet French St. George, a daughter.

8th. Lady Harvey, a daughter.

Lady Limerick, a daughter.

13th. Lady Catharine Graham, a ſon.

21ſt. Lady of ſir John Sinclair, bart. M. P. a ſon.

Lady of John Dent, eſq. M. P. a daughter.

Lady of Charles Morgan, eſq. M. P. a daughter.

24th. Viſcounteſs Duncannon, a ſon.

Oct. 3d. Lady of ſir N. Martin, bart. a ſon.

4th. Counteſs of Berkeley, a daughter.

Lady of the hon. and rev. doctor Marſham, a ſon.

19th. Lady Louiſa Harley, a ſon.

Viſcounteſs Southwell, a ſon and heir.

Lady

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Lady Dunboyne, a ſon and heir.

Lady of ſir Charles Cotton, bart. a ſon.

25th. Lady Charlotte Greville, a ſon.

28th. Lady George Cavendiſh, a ſon.

Nov. 8th. Lady of ſir Hew Dalrymple Hamilton, a daughter.

10th. Lady of ſir John Payne, bart. a daughter.

Electreſs Palatine of Bavaria, two princeſſes.

Lady Ann Maxwell, a daughter.

Viſcounteſs Bantry, a ſon.

Viſcounteſs Deerhurſt, a daughter.

Dec. 1ſt. Counteſs of Albemarle, a ſon.

12th. Counteſs of Oxford, a daughter.

Viſcounteſs Corry, a ſon and heir.

At Dreſden, princeſs Caroline, conſort of prince Maximilian, a prince, who has been chriſtened John, Nepomucenos, Maria, and eleven other names.

27th. Counteſs of Poulett, a daughter.

Lady Mulgrave, a ſon.

MARRIAGES *in the Year* 1801.

Jan. 1ſt. Col. Cotton, eldeſt ſon of ſir Robert Saliſbury Cotton, bart. to lady Anna Maria Pelham Clinton, ſiſter of the duke of Newcaſtle.

Lord Downe to Miſs Ainſlie.

22d. Arthur French St. George, eſq. to the hon. miſs Henrietta St. Lawrence, eldeſt daughter of lord viſcount St. Lawrence, and one of the co-heireſſes of the late counteſs of Kerry.

Feb. 4th. Hon. Charles Wyndham, brother to the earl of Egremont, to lady Anne Lambton.

Sir John Coxe Hippeſley, bart. to Mrs. Hippeſley Coxe.

March 5th. Lieut.-col. Erſkine, to lady Louiſa Paget, third daughter of the earl of Uxbridge.

13th. John Joſeph Henry, eſq. to lady Emily Fitzgerald, ſecond daughter of the duke of Leinſter.

21ſt. Lord Morpeth, eldeſt ſon of the earl of Carliſle, to lady Georgina Cavendiſh, eldeſt daughter of the duke of Devonſhire.

April 6th. The hon. and rev. Pearce Meade, fourth ſon of the late earl of Clanwilliam, to miſs Elizabeth Percy, youngeſt daughter of the biſhop of Dromore.

7th. Right hon. lord Whitworth, K. B. to her grace the ducheſs dowager of Dorſet.

13th. Sir Edward Knatchbull, bart. to miſs Hawkins.

18th. Sir John Arundel to miſs Sarah Anne Sharpe.

May 11th. Col. Orde to lady Louiſa Jocelyn, ſiſter to the earl of Roden.

18th. James Dupré, eſq. M. P. to miſs Maxwell, daughter of ſir William Maxwell, bart.

25th. Col. Cunnynghame to miſs Mary Thurlow, youngeſt daughter of lord Thurlow.

26th. Sir Robert Harland, bart. to miſs Vernon.

28th. Capt. Adam Drummond, to lady Charlotte Menzies, eldeſt daughter of the duke of Athol.

June 3d. Hon. Francis Nathaniel Burton, M. P. to the hon. Valentia Lawleſs, ſiſter of Lord Cloncurry.

13th. Mr. ſerjeant Onſlow to lady Drake.

14th. John Hammet, eſq. M. P. to miſs Woodford.

June. Lord John Thynne, third ſon of the late marquis of Bath, to miſs Mary Anne Maſter.

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Lord Louvaine, to miſs Louiſa Wortley.

Joſhua Edward Cooper, eſq. M. P. to miſs Elizabeth Lindſay.

Lord Ongley, to miſs Burgoyne, only daughter of the late ſir John Burgoyne, bart.

Lord Pelham, to lady Mary Oſborne.

July. Thomas Powell Symonds, eſq. M. P. to miſs Rootes.

Lord Aylmer, to miſs Louiſa Call, ſecond daughter of the late ſir John Call, bart.

Auguſt 1ſt. Sir Edmund Carrington, to miſs Paulina Beth.

20th. Joſeph Jekyll, eſq. M. P. to miſs Sloane.

Hon. ſir Edward Croſton, bart. eldeſt ſon of the baroneſs Croſton, to the lady Charlotte Stewart, fifth daughter of the earl of Galloway, and ſiſter to the marchioneſs of Blandford.

Sept. Brigadier-general Danne, to miſs White, ſiſter of lord Bantry.

Henry Parnell, eſq. ſon of ſir John Parnell, bart. to the hon. miſs Dawſon, ſiſter to the earl of Portarlington.

The hon. J. Cavendiſh, ſecond ſon of ſir Henry Cavendiſh, bart. to lady A. Gore, third daughter of the earl of Arran.

J. H. Moore, eſq. to dowager lady Dunboyne.

Sir Marcus Somerville, bart. to miſs Marianne Merydith.

Oct. Rev. ſir John Head, bart. to miſs Walker.

13th. Thomas Wynn, eſq. to lady Charlotte Bellaſyſe, eldeſt daughter of the earl of Fauconberg.

Sir John Riggs Miller, bart. to miſs Beauchamp.

Lieut.-col. Cockborn, to the hon. Mariana Devereux, eldeſt daughter of viſcount Hereford.

Sir John Murray, bart. to miſs Callander.

Hon. Montgomery Stewart, ſon of the earl of Galloway, to miſs Catherine Honeyman, ſiſter of lord Armadale.

Hon. George Irby, eldeſt ſon of lord Boſton, to miſs Drake.

Nov. 1ſt. William Glen Johnſton, eſq. to miſs Harriet Mary Hough Richardſon, ſiſter of ſir George Richardſon, bart.

5th. The right hon. Maurice Fitzgerald, to miſs Latouche.

10th. George Ellis, eſq. M. P. to miſs Parker, daughter of admiral ſir Peter Parker.

12th. William Francis count de l'Age Labrottellaire, to miſs Sarah Palmer.

15th. Sir James Blackwood, bart. to the hon. miſs Foſter.

27th. Lord Francis Spencer, ſecond ſon of the Duke of Marlborough, to lady Frances Fitzroy, fifth daughter of the duke of Grafton.

Dec. 14th. Major Macleod, to lady Arabella Anneſley, daughter of the earl of Mountnorris.

Lieut.-col. Wood, to lady Caroline Stewart, daughter of the earl of Londonderry.

24th. Robert Biddulph, eſq. M.P. to miſs Middleton, of Chirk-caſtle, whoſe name he aſſumes.

Earl of Meath to lady Melaſina Adelaide Meade, fourth daughter of the earl of Clanwilliam.

Sir Charles Burrell Blount, knight of the imperial military order of Maria Thereſa, to miſs Elvira Blount, daughter of ſir Charles William Blount, bart.

PROMOTIONS *in the Year* 1801.

January 1. Lieutenant-generals: Benjamin Gordon, George Ainſlie, James Adeane, Edward Smith, Thomas Bland, Felix Buckley, Henry

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Henry Watſon Powell, Thomas Stirling, George Garth, and Richard Grenville, to be generals in the army.

Major-generals: Horatio Spry, W. Souter Johnſtone, Harry Innes, Robert Donkin, James Balfour, James Francis Perkins, Norman M'Leod, Alexander Campbell, Francis D'Oyly, ſir James Duffe, knight, Henry lord Mulgrave, Grice Blakeney, Paulus Æmilius Irving, George Harris, Richard Vyſe, William lord Cathcart, Banaſtre Tarleton, ſir Hew Dalrymple, knight, Gordon Forbes, Andrew Gordon, John Floyd, Oliver de Lancey, John Graves Simcoe, and ſir James Henry Craig, K. B. to be lieutenant-generals in the army.

Colonels: John Stuart, honourable Robert Taylor, Gerrit Fiſher, George Milner, John Henry Fraſer, W. D. M'Lean Clephane, Charles Barnet, George marquis of Huntley, George Benſon, honourable Edward Finch, Iſaac Gaſcoyne, George Frederick lord Southampton, and Stephen Poyntz, to be major-generals in the army.

Lieutenant-colonels: James O'Moore, Thomas M'Dermot, Eugene M'Carthy, Edward Stack, Hugh Lyle Carmichael, honourable John Brodrick, Henry Warde, James Durham, honourable David Leſlie, James Leith, John Manners Kerr, Thomas Scott, Quin John Freeman, William Robertſon, Arthur Wolfe, Matthew Baillie, Tomkins Belgrove Turner, John Randall M'Kenzie, Chriſtopher Tilſon, William Simſon, hon. W. Mordaunt Maitland, William Munro, James Campbell, Thomas Picton, John-Gordon Cumming, John Crew, hon. George Lowrey Cole, Marcus Beresford, Gonville Bromhead, Charles M'Doncl, George earl of Granard, Mungo Noble, Stafford Lightburne, John Henry Loſt, ſir William Erſkine, bart, Nathaniel W. Maſſey, Francis Moore, hon. Robert King, William Henry Clinton, George Dalrymple, and John Taubman, to be colonels in the army.

Majors: Peter Beaver, William Savary, Hampſon P. Thomas, Thomas M'Mahon, John Picton, hon. Edward Wingfield, John Ford, Archibald Bothwell, Arthur Anneſly, hon. lord Hely Hutchinſon, Benjamin Rowe, Kenneth M'Rae, Edward Boland, Henry Hawley, Edward Scott, James Logan, William M'Caſkill, Donald Robertſon, Thomas Probyn, John Gordon, George Wilſon, George Maddiſon, John Crowgey, John Wauchope, Frederick William Buller, Humphrey Davie, John J. Broadhead, Thomas Bradford, Thomas G. Elrington, George H. Maſon, John Granby Clay, Alexander Colſton, John Grey, William Lockhart, Archibald Butter, hon. John Creighton, Dunbar J. Hunter, John Campbell, Sydney Scroggs, Alexander Coſby Jackſon, Gage John Hall, Robert Roſs, and George Wynyard, to be lieutenant-colonels in the army.

Richard Brathwaite, eſq. Philip Coſby, eſq. Samuel Corniſh, eſq. John Briſbane, eſq. Charles Wolſeley, eſq. Samuel Granſton Goodal, eſq. his royal highneſs William-Henry duke of Clarence, admirals of the blue—to be admirals of the white.

Robert Linzee, eſq. ſir James Wallace, knt. William Peere Williams, eſq. ſir Thomas Paiſley, bart. ſir Thomas Rich, bart. James Cumming, eſq. ſir John Colpoys, K. B. Skeffington Lutwidge, eſq. Archibald Dickſon, eſq. George Mon-

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tage, esq. Thomas Dumaresq, esq. right hon. George lord Keith, K. B. vice-admirals of the red—to be admirals of the blue.

Thomas Mackenzie, esq. Thomas Pringle, esq. sir Roger Curtis, bart. sir Henry Hervey, K. B. Robert Man, esq. sir William Parker, bart. Charles Holmes Calmady, esq. John Bourmaster, esq. sir George Young, knt. John Henry, esq. Richard Rodney Bligh, esq. vice-admirals of the white—to be vice-admirals of the red.

Robert Biggs, esq. Francis Parry, esq. Isaac Prescott, esq. John Bazeley, esq. Christopher Mason, esq. Thomas Spry, esq. sir John Orde, bart. William Young, esq. James Gambier, esq. sir Andrew Mitchell, K. B. vice-admirals of the blue—to be vice-admirals of the white.

Christopher Parker, esq. Philip Patton, esq. Charles Morice Pole, esq. John Brown, esq. John Leigh Douglas, esq. William Swiney, esq. Charles Edmund Nugent, esq. Charles Powell Hamilton, esq. Edmund Dod, esq. right hon. Horatio lord Nelson, K. B. rear-admirals of the red—to be vice-admirals of the blue.

James Brine, esq. John Pakenham, esq. sir Erasmus Gower, knt. John Holloway, esq. John Blanket, esq. George Willon, esq. sir Charles Henry Knowles, bart. hon. Thomas Pakenham, Robert Deans, esq. Cuthbert Collingwood, esq. James Hawkins Whitshed, esq. Arthur Kempe, esq. Smith Child, esq. right hon. lord Charles Fitzgerald, Thomas Taylor, esq. John Thomas Duckworth, esq. rear-admirals of the white—to be rear-admirals of the red.

John Knowles, esq. John Willett Payne, esq. sir Robert Calder, bart. James Richard Dacres, esq. hon. George Berkeley, Thomas West, esq. James Douglas, esq. Peter Aplin, esq. Henry Savage, esq. Bartholomew Samuel Rowley, esq. sir Richard Bickerton, bart. George Bowen, esq. Robert Montague, esq. John Fergusson, esq. Edward Edwards, esq. sir John Borlase Warren, bart. and K. B. rear-admirals of the blue—to be rear-admirals of the white.

Captains: Edward Tyrrel Smith, esq. Thomas Graves (1st), Thomas Macnamara Russell, esq. Sylverius Moriarty, esq. sir Henry Trollope, knt.—to be rear-admirals of the white.

Henry Edwin Stanhope, esq. Robert M'Dowall, esq. Billy Douglas, esq. John Wickey, esq. John Inglis, esq. John Fish, esq. Jableel Brenton, esq. John Knight, esq. Edward Thornborough, esq. James Kempthorne, esq. Sampson Edwards, esq. George Campbell, esq. Thomas Hicks, esq. Henry Cromwell, esq. Arthur Phillip, esq. sir William George Fairfax, knt. Thomas Totty, esq. sir James Saumarez, knt.—to be rear-admirals of the blue.

Sir Edward Pellew, bart. William Domett, esq. and sir Thomas Troubridge, bart. to be colonels of his majesty's marine forces.

Dublin, Jan. 3d. Richard earl of Shannon, K. P. right hon. Isaac Corry, chancellor of his majesty's exchequer of this kingdom for the time being, right hon. Robert Stewart, commonly called lord viscount Castlereagh, chief secretary to the lord lieutenant, or, in the absence of the said chief secretary, the under secretary for the time being to the lord lieutenant, or in the absence of the said chief secretary, the under secretary for the time being for the civil department

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department of the said chief secretary's office, the right hon. Lodge lord Frankfort, the right hon. John Loftus Loftus, commonly called lord viscount Loftus, and the right hon. Maurice Fitzgerald, to be commissioners for executing the office of treasurer of his majesty's exchequer.

6th. Invalids: Brevet lieutenant-colonel James Fahy, to be commandant of the independent companies of invalids at Alderney. Brevet: Colonel James Erskine, of the 15th light dragoons, to be aid-du-camp to the king.

7th. Sir Thomas Troubridge, bart. captain in the royal navy, and colonel of his majesty's marine forces; captain Alexander-John Ball, of the royal navy; captain Samuel Hood, of the royal navy; and captain Benjamin Hallowell, of the royal navy; permitted to accept the rank of commanders of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit, which it is the intention of Ferdinand the Fourth, king of the Two Sicilies, to confer upon them, and to bear the insignia of commanders of the said order.

10th. Major-general T. Garth, to be colonel of the 1st regiment of dragoons.

13th. The king has been pleased to grant the dignity of a baron of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland to the most hon. Charles marquis of Drogheda, of the kingdom of Ireland, K. P. and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, by the name, style, and title of baron Moore, of Moore-place, in the county of Kent; to the most hon. Charles marquis of Ely, of the kingdom of Ireland, K. P. by the name, &c. of baron Loftus, of Long Loftus, in the county of York; to the right hon. Walter earl of Ormond and Upper Ossory, of the kingdom of Ireland, K. P. by the name, &c. of baron Butler, of Lanthony, in the county of Monmouth; and to the right hon. John-Josiua earl of Carysfort, of the kingdom of Ireland, K. P. by the name, &c. of baron Carysfort, of the hundred of Normancross, in the county of Huntingdon.

Major Boyle Travers, to be lieutenant-colonel in the army.

27th. To be brigadier-generals in the West Indies only: Col. David Cunynghame, col. Patrick Wauchope, col. Baldwin Leighton, and col. Martin Hunter. Col. Thomas Peter, inspecting field-officer.—To be colonel in the army, lieutenant-colonel Robert Barnard Sparrow.

31st. Right hon. William archbishop of Armagh, sworn of his majesty's most honourable privy-council.

Feb. 3d. Lieutenant-col. count Bartholomew O'Mahony, to be colonel in the army.

10th. Colonel Manners Kerr, to be brigadier-general to the forces in the West Indies only.

14th. Henry Vavasour, of Spaldington and Mellington, in the county of York, esq. and Robert Shore Milnes, esq. lieutenant-governor of the province of Lower Canada, in America, created baronets of the united kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland.

Brook Taylor, esq. to be his majesty's minister plenipotentiary at the court of the elector of Cologne.

18th. Right hon. sir John Mitford, speaker of the house of commons, sworn of his majesty's most honourable privy council.

20th. Right hon. John earl of St.

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Vincent, right hon. Charles George lord Arden, and the right hon. Charles Yorke, ſworn of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy council. —Right hon. Robert Banks Jenkinſon, commonly called Lord Hawkeſbury, ſworn one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

21ſt. Edward Law, eſq. his majeſty's attorney-general, knighted.

Right hon. John earl of St. Vincent, admiral of the white, K. B. ſir Philip Stephens, bart. William Elliot, eſq. ſir Thomas Troubridge, bart. James Adams, John Markham, and William Garthſhore, eſq's. appointed his majeſty's commiſſioners for executing the office of high admiral of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the dominions, iſlands, and territories thereunto belonging.

March 17th Right hon. Philip earl of Hardwicke, and the right hon. George Legge, commonly called viſcount Lewiſham, ſworn of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy council —Right hon. Philip earl of Hardwicke, appointed lieutenant-general and general governor of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland.—Right hon. Robert lord Hobart, ſworn one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Right hon. Henry Addington, John Smith and Charles Small Pybus, eſqrs. George Thynne, eſq. (commonly called lord George Thynne), and Nathanael Bond, eſq. appointed commiſſioners for executing the office of treaſurer of his majeſty's exchequer.—Right hon. Henry Addington, chancellor and under treaſurer of his majeſty's exchequer.—Right honourable Charles Yorke, his majeſty's ſecretary at war.

19th. Right hon. Thomas Steele, and right hon. lord Glenbervie, appointed paymaſter-general of his majeſty's forces.

23d. William lord Auckland, and Charles Spencer, eſq. (commonly called lord Charles Spencer), appointed his majeſty's poſtmaſter general.

Colonel Arthur Whetham, and colonel Hugh Lyle Carmichael, to be brigadier-generals in the Leeward iſlands only.—Brevet-major R. Uniacke, to be lieutenant-colonel in the army.—Lieutenant-col. John Barnes, to be deputy-barrack-maſter-general to the Britiſh forces ſerving in both the Canadas.

Lieutenant-general his royal highneſs Erneſt duke of Cumberland, K. G to be colonel of the 15th light dragoons.

Codrington Edmund Carrington, of the Middle Temple, eſq. barriſter at law, to be chief juſtice of the ſupreme court of judicature in the iſland of Ceylon; and Edmund-Henry Luſhington, of the Inner Temple, eſq. barriſter at law, to be the puiſne juſtice of the ſaid court.

Charles Baron Arden, of that part of his majeſty's kingdom called Ireland, to be maſter and worker of his majeſty's mint.

April 4th. Major John Rutherford, to be lieutenant-colonel commandant. Colonels John Bellaſis, Richard Jones, and William Neville Cameron, officers of the Eaſt India company's forces, to take rank as major-generals in his majeſty's army in the Eaſt Indies only.

The right hon. lord Eldon, to be lord high chancellor of Great Britain.

18th.

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18th. Right hon. Alexander lord Loughborough, created an earl of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, ſtyle, and title of earl of Roſſlyn, in the county of Mid-Lothian, with the remainder to the heirs male, lawfully begotten, of the body of lady Janet Erſkine, deceaſed, ſiſter to the ſaid Alexander lord Loughborough, and widow of ſir Henry Erſkine, of Alva, bart.

Mary-Henrietta Erſkine, daughter of lady Janet Erſkine, deceaſed, to have and enjoy the ſame place, pre-eminence, and precedency, in all aſſemblies or meetings whatſoever, as the daughter of an earl of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

21ſt. Right hon. John earl of St. Vincent, K B. and admiral of the white, created a viſcount of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, ſtyle, and title of viſcount St. Vincent, of Meaford, in the county of Stafford, with remainders ſeverally and ſucceſſively to William-Henry Ricketts, eſq. captain in the royal navy, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten; to Edward-Jervis Ricketts, eſq. barriſter at law, brother of the ſaid William-Henry Ricketts, and ſons of Mary Ricketts, by William-Henry Ricketts, eſq. late of the iſland of Jamaica, deceaſed, and ſiſter to the ſaid John earl of St. Vincent, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten; and the dignity of viſcounteſs St. Vincent, of Meaford, in the ſaid county of Stafford, granted to the right hon. Mary counteſs of Northeſk, daughter of the ſaid Mary Ricketts, and widow of William-Henry Ricketts aforeſaid, and the dignity of viſcount St. Vincent to the heirs male of her body lawfully begotten.

Colonel George-Henry Vanſittart, to be brigadier-general in the Leeward iſlands only. Colonel the hon. John Broderick, to be brigadier general in the Mediterranean only. Brevet-major Charles Holloway, to be lieutenant-colonel in the dominions of the grand ſeignior only, and major, with permanent rank, in the army. Lieutenant-colonel Edward Stephens, and Lieutenant-colonel the hon. William Stewart, to be colonels in the army. To be barrack-maſters in Great Britain, ſir James Cockburn and ſir John Forbes, barts. and George Torriano, eſq.

25th. Rev. William Vincent, D. D. head maſter of Weſtminſter-ſchool, to be a prebendary of Weſtminſter.

George Buchan Hepburn, eſq. judge-admiral of Scotland, to be one of the barons of exchequer in Scotland.

Henry Gwillim, eſq. to be one of the judges of the ſupreme court at Madras.

Viſcount Lewiſham, the duke of Portland, lords Hawkeſbury and Hobart, Mr. Addington, the duke of Montroſe, earl Bathurſt, lord Glenbervie, William Dundas and Thomas Wallace, eſqrs. lord Arden, Thomas Pelham and Edward Golding, eſqrs. to be commiſſioners for the management of the affairs of India.

May 12th. Robert Dundas, eſq. appointed chief baron of his majeſty's court of exchequer in Scotland.—Charles Hope, eſq. appointed his majeſty's advocate in Scotland.

16th. The earl of Leven and Melvill,

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Melvill, appointed his majesty's high commissioner to the general assembly of the church of Scotland. —George Prevost, esq. brigadier-general of his majesty's forces, to be lieutenant-governor of the island of St. Lucia, in America.—George Nugent, esq. major-general of his majesty's forces, to be lieutenant-governor of the island of Jamaica, in America.

19th. Right hon. Horatio baron Nelson, K. B. and vice-admiral of the blue, created a viscount of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, style, and title of viscount Nelson of the Nile, and of Burnham Thorpe, in the county of Norfolk.—Tho. Graves, esq. rear-admiral of the white, to be one of the knights-companions of the most honourable order of the bath.

21st. Right hon. sir Edward Grant, knight; right hon. Charles Abbott, and right hon. Thomas Wallace, sworn of his majesty's most honourable privy-council.

22d. Right hon. sir Richard Pepper Arden, knight, created baron Alvanley, of Alvanley, in the county of Chester.—Mary-Anne lady Abercromby, widow of lieutenant-general sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. created baroness Abercromby, of Aboukir, and of Tullibody, in the county of Clackmannan; and the dignity of a baron of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland granted to the heirs male of her body, lawfully begotten by the said lieutenant-general sir Ralph Abercromby, deceased.

26th. Arthur Whetham, esq. appointed governor and commander in chief of the island of Curaçoa, in America.—Thomas Picton, esq. to be governor and commander in chief of the island of Trinidada, in America.

Major-general the hon. John Hely Hutchinson, to be lieutenant-general in the army serving in the Mediterranean, and in the dominions of the grand seignior. Lieutenant-colonel sir Richard Bassett, knight, to be colonel in the army while serving with the troops stationed at Honduras only. Major Thomas Browne, to be lieutenant-colonel in the army. Captain Terence Mac Mahon, to be major in the army. Colonel the hon. Alexander Hope, to be adjutant-general to the forces in Ireland.

30th. Right hon. sir Richard Pepper Arden, knight, (baron Alvanley), made a serjeant at law, and appointed chief justice of the court of common pleas.—Right hon. sir William Grant, knight, appointed master or keeper of the rolls and records of the court of chancery.—Major-general the hon. John Hely Hutchinson, to be one of the knights-companions of the most hon. order of the bath.

June 2d. Right hon. Henry Bayley, earl of Uxbridge, appointed lord-lieutenant of the county of Stafford.

3d. John duke of Roxburgh, groom of the stole, to be a knight-companion of the most honourable order of the garter.

6th. Sir James Saumarez, of the island of Guernsey, knight, rear-admiral of the blue; Henry Strachey, of Sutton-court, in the county of Somerset, and of Rookshest, in the county of Surrey, esq. master of his majesty's household; William Weller Pepys, of Wimpole-street, Cavendish-square, one of the masters

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ters of the high court of chancery; Alexander-John Ball, esq. captain in the royal navy, a commander of the Sicilian order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit; William Bensley, of St. Mary-le-bonne, in the county of Middlesex, esq.; Hugh Inglis, of Milton-Bryant, in the county of Bedford, esq.; William Earle Welby, of Denton-house, in the county of Lincoln, esq.; Christopher Banes, of Harefield-place, in the county of Middlesex, esq.; and Thomas-Barrett Lennard, of Belhouse, in the county of Essex, esq; created baronets of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.—Lieutenant-general Thomas Trigge, and John-Thomas Duckworth, esq. rear-admirals of the red, to be knights-companions of the most honourable order of the bath.

9th. Hon. Arthur Paget, appointed his majesty's envoy-extraordinary and minister-plenipotentiary at the court of Vienna; William Drummond, esq. envoy-extraordinary at the court of his Sicilian majesty; Alexander Stratan, esq. secretary of embassy at the Ottoman Porte; and Charles Stuart, esq. secretary of legation at the court of Vienna.

Field-marshal his royal highness Frederick duke of York, appointed commander in chief of all his majesty's land forces in the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Charles-Edward Beresford, esq. to be secretary to the commissioners for managing the stamp-duties.

General sir William Medows, K. B. to be commander in chief of his majesty's forces in Ireland.

13th. Right hon. Alleyne lord St. Helen's, appointed ambassador-extraordinary and minister-plenipotentiary at the court of St. Petersburg; and Benjamin Garlike, esq. to be secretary to the embassy.—Charles Oakley, esq. to be secretary of legation at the court of the elector of Bavaria.—Right hon. gen. sir Chas. Grey, K. B. created baron Grey, of Howick, in the county of Northumberland.

15th. Right hon. William lord Craven, to be viscount Uffington, in the county of Berks, and earl of Craven, in the county of York.—Right hon. George lord Onslow, to be viscount Cranley, of Cranley, in the county of Surrey, and earl of Onslow, in the county of Salop.—Right hon. Charles lord Romney, to be viscount Marsham, of the Mote, in the county of Kent, and earl of Romney.—Right hon. Thomas lord Pelham, to be earl of Chichester.—Right hon. Thomas lord Grey de Wilton, to be viscount Grey de Wilton, and earl of Wilton, of Wilton castle, in the county of Hereford, with remainders to Thomas Grosvenor, esq. second son, Robert Grosvenor, esq. third son, of viscount Belgrave, by Eleanor his wife, daughter of the said Thomas lord Grey de Wilton, and the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and every other son and sons of the said Eleanor, by her present or any future husband, and the respective heirs male of their bodies, lawfully begotten.

16th. Right hon. George Legge, commonly called viscount Lewisham, to be baron of Dartmouth, Devon.

Robert Barlow, esq. captain in the royal navy, knighted.

23d. General the hon. William Harcourt, to be governor of the royal military college.—Lieutenant-general John earl of Clanricarde, to be governor of Hull; lieutenant-colonel Francis Cunninghame, of the

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the Coldſtream foot guards, to be lieutenant-governor of Hull.—Lieutenant-general Henry Johnſton, to be governor of Roſs caſtle, in Ireland.

24th. Codrington Edmund Carrington, eſq. chief juſtice of the ſupreme court of judicature in the iſland of Ceylon, knighted.

25th. Sir Michael Smith, bart. appointed maſter of the rolls in Ireland; right hon. St. G. Daly, one of the barons of the court of exchequer in Ireland; Robert Johnſon, eſq. one of the puiſne judges of the court of common pleas in Ireland.

27th. Right hon. John earl of Chatham, K. G. to be maſter general of his majeſty's ordnance of the united kingdom.

29th. Right hon. Thomas Pelham, to be baron Pelham, of Stanmer, in the county of Suſſex.

30th. James Montgomery, of Stanhope, eſq. late lord chief baron of the court of exchequer in Scotland, and William Douglas, of Caſtle Douglas, in the ſtewartry of Kirkcudbright, and of Newton Douglas, in the ſhire of Wigton, eſq. created baronets.—John Royds, eſq. one of the judges of the ſupreme court at Bengal; Henry Gwillim and Benjamin Sullivan, eſqrs. judges of the ſupreme court at Madras; knighted.

Robert Blair, ſolicitor-general for Scotland, elected dean of the faculty.

July 4th. Edmund Stanley, eſq. to be his majeſty's prime ſerjeant at law in Ireland.

7th. John Dillon, of Liſmullen, in the county of Meath, eſq. a baron of the holy Roman empire; John Keane, of Belmont and Cappoquin, in the county of Waterford, eſq.; James Chatterton, of Caſtle Mahon, in the county and city of Cork, eſq. his majeſty's ſecond ſerjeant at law in Ireland; Richard Hardinge, of the county of Fermanagh, eſq. with remainder to the heirs male of the body of his father, Nicholas Hardinge, late of Canbary, in the county of Surrey, eſq. deceaſed; Thomas Judkin Fitzgerald, of Leſheen, in the county of Tipperary, eſq.; ſir Richard Kellett, of Lota, in the county and city of Cork, knight, with remainder to the heirs male of the body of his father, Richard Kellett, eſq. of the city of Cork; ſir William Jackſon Homan, of Dunlum, in the county of Weſtmeath, knight; Francis Goold, of Old Court, in the county of Cork, eſq. deceaſed; Morgan Croſton, of Mohill, in the county of Leitrim, eſq.; James Michael de Batha, of Knightſtown, Cathell, and Ladyrath, in the county of Meath, eſq.; Robert Synge, of Kiltrough, in the county of Meath, eſq.; and Andrew Ferguſon, of the city of Londonderry, eſq.; created baronets.

11th. Major-general Francis Dundas, to be lieutenant-general at the Cape of Good Hope.

15th. Right hon. Alleyne, baron St. Helen's of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, created a baron of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, ſtyle, and title, of baron St. Helen's, of St. Helen's, in the Iſle of Wight, and in the county of Southampton.

25th. Lieutenant-colonel John Gaſpard le Marchant, to be lieutenant-governor and ſuperintendant-general of the royal military college; Charles Greenwood, eſq. treaſurer, and lieutenant-colonel Frederick Mackenzie ſecretary thereof.

Charles

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Charles Abbot, esq. elected recorder of Oxford; the hon. C. B. Agar, elected deputy-recorder.

Colonel the hon. Arthur Wellesley, to be brigadier-general in the army serving in Egypt.

Lieutenant-general the hon. Edward Fox, to be commander of the forces serving in the Mediterranean, Gibraltar excepted, with the local rank of general.

30th. His grace William Henry Cavendish, duke of Portland, to be lord president of his majesty's most honourable privy-council. Right hon. Thomas lord Pelham, appointed one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state.

Aug. 1st. William A'Court, esq. to be his majesty's secretary of legation at the court of his Sicilian majesty.

Right hon. Horatio viscount Nelson, K. B. vice-admiral of the blue, duke of Bronte, in Sicily, knight of the grand cross of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit, and of the imperial order of the Crescent, created a baron of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, style, and title of baron Nelson of the Nile, and of Hilborough, in the county of Norfolk, with remainder to the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten; and, in default of such issue, to Edmund Nelson, clerk, rector of Burnham Thorpe, in the said county of Norfolk, father of the said Horatio viscount Nelson, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten; and to the heirs male, lawfully begotten, and to be begotten, severally and successively, of Susannah the wife of Thomas Bolton, esq. and sister of the said Horatio viscount Nelson; and, in default of such issue, to the heirs male of Catharine, the wife of George Matcham, esq. another sister of the said viscount Nelson.

8th. Colonel George Vaughan Hart, to be brigadier-general in Ireland. Captain James Wheeler Unwin, to be major in the army.

18th. Charles Mortice Pole, esq. vice-admiral of the blue, created a baronet of the united kingdom.

21st. His royal highness Edward duke of Kent, K. G. to be colonel of the 1st (or royal) regiment of foot.

22d. Captain Charles Auriol, to be major in the army. Lieutenant-general William Gardiner, to be governor of Kinsale. Lieutenant-colonel the hon. John Creighton, to be governor of Hurst castle.

25th. Lieutenant-general sir Robert Abercromby, K. B. to be governor of Edinburgh castle. Robert Jackson, M. D. physician to the forces, and head of the hospital at Chatham, to be physician to the forces, and head of the hospital at the Isle of Wight. James Borland, M. D. to be assistant-inspector of hospitals to the forces.

Sir Michael Smith, bart. master of the rolls in Ireland, sworn of his majesty's most hon. privy-council of Ireland.

Sept. 5th. Sir James Saumarez, bart. rear-admiral of the blue, to be a knight of the bath.

Bartholomew Frere, esq. appointed his majesty's secretary of legation at the court of Lisbon.

Colonel W. Henry Clinton, to be brigadier-general in the island of Madeira. The under-mentioned officers, late of the Irish brigade, now of the regiment of Dillon, to take rank as follows: Colonel Edward Dillon, to be colonel in the army; lieute-

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lieutenant-colonel Francis Dillon, to be lieutenant-colonel in the army.

8th. Captain William O. Hamilton, to be major in the army.

12th. Lord viſcount Nelſon permitted (by his majeſty's warrant, dated Jan. 7, 1801) to adopt, for himſelf and heirs, the title of duke of Bronte, with the fief of the duchy annexed thereto; and alſo to receive the great croſs of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit; all conferred on him by Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies.

General —— Jarry, to be commandant of the ſenior department of the royal military college.

15th. Right hon. Murrough, marquis of Thomond, K. P. created baron Thomond, of Taplow-court, in the county of Buckingham.

22d. His grace William Frederick, duke of Leeds, appointed governor of the iſlands of Scilly, alias Sully, alias Sorlingues.

25th. Major Thomas Gage Montreſor, to be lieutenant-colonel in the army. Lieutenant-colonel Robert Crauford, of the 60th foot, deputy quarter-maſter-general in Ireland, to be adjutant-general to his majeſty's troops ſtationed in the Eaſt Indies.

Captain William Mudie, to be major in the army.

Oct. 6th. Lieutenant-colonel Robert Mathews, to be major of Chelſea hoſpital.

Lord Eldon, appointed (by the duke of Portland) high ſteward of the univerſity of Oxford.

10th. George W. Erving, eſq. to be conſul from the United States of America at the port of London.

19th. Captain Joſeph Lambeth, to be major in the army. Lieutenant-colonel Thomas Brownrigg, of the 3d foot, to be deputy quarter-maſter-general in Ireland.

27th. Colonel Thomas Picton, to be brigadier-general in the iſland of Trinidad only. Captain Charles Irvine, to be deputy adjutant-general to the forces ſtationed in the iſland of Jamaica, with the rank of major in the army.

29th. Marquis Cornwallis, appointed his majeſty's plenipotentiary at the congreſs at Amiens; and Anthony Merry, eſq. to execute the office of his majeſty's ſecretary at the ſaid congreſs.

Nov. 14th. Lieutenant-col. John Hamilton, to be deputy quarter-maſter-general to the forces ſerving at the Cape of Good Hope.

18th. Charles Bragge, eſq. treaſurer of his majeſty's navy, ſworn of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy-council. Sylveſter lord Glenbervie, to be preſident of the committee appointed for the conſideration of all matters relating to trade and foreign plantations, in the abſence of the earl of Liverpool.

21ſt. Colonel John Blake, to be brigadier-general in Egypt only.

23d. Sir Andrew Snape Hammond, bart. Henry Duncan, eſq. ſir John Henslow and ſir William Rule, knights, William Palmer, eſq. ſir William Bellingham, bart. Harry Harmood, Samuel Gambier, Francis John Hartwell, Benjamin Tucker, Charles Hope, Iſaac Coffin, and Robert Fanſhaw, eſqrs. ſir Charles Saxton, bart. Nicholſon Inglefield eſq. and ſir Alexander John Ball, appointed principal officers and commiſſioners of his majeſty's navy.

24th. Prince Auguſtus Frederick, created baron of Arklow, earl of Invernels, and duke of Suſſex; Prince Adolphus Frederick, baron of Culloden, earl of Tipperary, and duke of Cambridge.

Dec.

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Dec. 5th. George Keith (baron Keith, of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland), K. B. and admiral of the blue, created a baron of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the title of baron Keith, of Stonehaven-Marischal, in the county of Kincardine. Lieutenant-general sir John Hely Hutchinson, K. B. to be lord Hutchinson, baron of Alexandria, and of Knocklofty, in the county of Tipperary. John Halkett, esq. appointed captain-general and governor in chief of the Bahama islands.

7th. William d'Arley, esq. captain in his majesty's marine forces, permitted to accept the rank of knight of the royal and military order of Constantine, conferred on him by Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies; and to bear, in his own country, the ensigns of the said order.

16th. Richard Ford, esq. chief magistrate of the police, knighted.

17th. Sir Francis Milman, bart. physician extraordinary to the king, appointed (by the queen) one her majesty's physicians in ordinary.

29th. Major James Fitzgerald, of the 3d foot-guards, to be deputy adjutant-general to the forces serving in the Mediterranean, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the army. Brigade-major William Hely, to be fort-major in the garrison of St. John's, in the island of Newfoundland. Francis Knight, esq. surgeon to the Coldstream regiment of foot-guards, to be inspector-general of army hospitals.

Sir Nigel Bowyer Gresley, bart. elected recorder of Lichfield.

Henry Woodthorpe, esq. elected town-clerk, and Thomas Shelton, esq. clerk of the peace, of the city of London.

DEATHS *in the Year* 1801.

Jan. 1st. At Paris, B. Selléque, editor of the "Journal des Modes," and of a little work, after Mercier's manner, intituled "Voyage autour du Palais Egalité," published last year.

2d. Eardley Wilmot, esq. youngest son of sir Eardley Wilmot, deceased, and one of the clerks of the signet.

In his 73d year, Robert Orme, esq. formerly one of the servants of the East India company, and author of a "History of the military Transactions of the British Nation in Hindistan, from the Year 1745," in 2 vols. 4to.; the first published 1763, the second 1778. To these he added, in 1782, "Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire," in a duodecimo volume.

8th. Edward Stratford, earl of Aldborough, viscount Amiens, baron of Baltinglass, governor of the county of Wicklow, and F. R. S. He married, first, Barbara, daughter and sole heiress of the hon. Nicholas Herbert, of Great Glenham, Suffolk, who dying without issue, in 1787, his lordship married, secondly, May 24, 1788, Elizabeth, only daughter of sir John Henniker, of Newton-hill and Stratford-house, Kent, knt. He is succeeded by the hon. John Stratford.

Lieut.general Philip Goldsworthy, colonel of the 1st regiment of dragoons, equerry and clerk-martial to his majesty, and M. P. for Wilton.

10th. George Aufrere, esq. formerly M. P. for the borough of Stamford, and many years a merchant of eminence in London. He married Miss Arabella Bate, who survives him, by whom he had only one child, Sophia, who married Mr.

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Mr. Pelham, of Brocklesby, in Lincolnshire, afterwards lord Yarborough.

Lady Leigh, widow of sir Samuel Egerton Leigh. Her first husband was the unfortunate Donellan, executed for the murder of sir Edward Theodosius Allesley Boughton.

Aged 75, John Devaynes, esq. apothecary to his majesty. He has left 400l. per annum to the marchioness of Townshend, who was his great patroness. His remains were interred on the 24th, with great funeral pomp, in the family vault, at Putney, Surrey. He was the eldest of the two sons of a French gentleman of good family. His surviving brother is William Devaynes, esq. M. P. late chairman to the East India company, to whom he has left 50,000l. Mr. D. was appointed housekold apothecary to the queen in 1761, on her arrival in England, to which he was promoted by Dr. Secker, then archbishop of Canterbury. By his lady, who died in 1795, he left no children.

13th. In his 46th year, George-Edward-Henry-Arthur Herbert, earl of Powis, viscount Ludlow, lord Herbert of Cherbury, baron Powis of Powis-castle, and baron Herbert of Cherbury and Ludlow, recorder of Ludlow, lord lieutenant and custos rotulorum and colonel of the Montgomeryshire militia. He succeeded his father, the first earl, in 1772, and has died unmarried. His only sister was married to lord Clive in 1784, by whom she has issue one daughter.

15th. In his 49th year, Ralph Heathcote, esq. his majesty's minister plenipotentiary to the elector of Cologne, and to the landgrave of Hesse Cassel; eldest son of the late Ralph Heathcote, D. D.

At Bluecastle, in Jamaica, James Bell, M. D. late of Kelso, author of a valuable paper in the eighth volume of "Medical Facts and Observations."

31st. George Markham, esq. brother to the archbishop of York.

Aged 80, sir Gillies Payne, bart. so created in 1737.

Feb. 1st. George Bridges Brudenell, esq. only son of the hon. James Brudenell, esq. the second son of the earl of Cardigan, whose eldest son, the last earl, was created duke of Montague. Mr. Brudenell was an equerry to the king, and afwards, for many years, at the head of the board of green cloth, and represented the county of Rutland in 1754, upon the late lord Brudenell becoming earl of Exeter, till the year 1761, and then was M. P. for Stamford, upon the late hon. Thomas Chambers Cecil, father of the marquis of Exeter, being chosen for Rutland. He was chosen again member for Rutland, upon Mr. Cecil's death, and afterwards retired to his seat at Ayston.

6th. At Brunswick, aged 85, her royal highness Philippina-Charlotte, duchess-dowager of Brunswick, sister of Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, relict of the late, and mother of the present duke, who married the princess Augusta of England. She was born March 13, 1716.

7th. At Madras, soon after his arrival there, sir William Lee, bart. of Hartwell, Bucks, eldest son of the late sir William Lee, and lieutenant-colonel of the 16th (or general Harcourt's) regiment of light dragoons. He is succeeded in his estate and title by his only brother, George, rector of Hartwell, and vicar of Stone, Bucks.

9th.

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9th. Mrs. Davies, widow of the late Mr. Thomas Davies, bookſeller, and author of the "Life of Garrick," formerly an actreſs of ſome merit at Drury-lane theatre.

Aged 37, the right hon. lady Charlotte Holwell Carr, daughter of James, 16th earl of Errol, and wife of the rev. William Holwell Carr.

12th. Aged 78, Chriſtopher Stroſoff, eſq. an eminent Hamburgh merchant, partner with the late Mr. Burgeſs. He and Mr. Burgeſs married two ſiſters, daughters of Mr. Glover, Hamburgh merchant, father of the celebrated author of "Leonidas," who ſucceeded to his buſineſs, as his two brothers-in-law did to that of Mr. Voght.

13th. At Paris, aged 78, John Darcet, M. D. member of the conſervatory ſenate, and of the national inſtitute, and profeſſor of chemiſtry in the college of France. He was a native of St. Sever, in the *ci-devant* dioceſe of Aire, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his experiments (in conjunction with the late M. Rouelle) on the deſtructability of the diamond, and by his ſkill in mineralogy. He married a daughter of the elder Rouelle, and has left a ſon and two daughters.

In the infirmary at Stafford, where he was under the care of the ſurgeons of that uſeful inſtitution for a painful operation, Mr. Francis Barber, the faithful ſervant and reſiduary legatee of Dr. Samuel Johnſon. He was born in Jamaica, and brought to England in 1750 by colonel Bathurſt, father of Johnſon's very intimate friend, Dr. Bathurſt.

15th. Aged 42, the right hon. lady Elizabeth Douglas, daughter of David, late earl of Glaſgow, and wife of ſir George Douglas, of Springwood-park, bart.

March 3d. Aged 55, Michael Angelo Rooker, eſq. R. A. He was the only ſon of the celebrated engraver, who is characterized by the late lord Orford, in his Anecdotes, as the Marc Antonio of that art. Michael was bred an engraver under his father, and ſtudied at the academy of the ſociety of artiſts; and when his majeſty founded the preſent royal academy, was elected one of the aſſociates. His excellence as an engraver was great; but, finding the practice of the art prejudicial to his ſight, he relinquiſhed it on being appointed ſcene-painter to the Little Theatre in the Haymarket, reſerving only the execution of the plate to the Oxford almanack, for which he likewiſe made the drawings.

At her apartments in Hampton-court palace, Mrs. Dunckerley, relict of the late Thomas Dunkerley, eſq. who bore for his arms thoſe of king George II. with a batoon, and with this motto, "Fato non merito." In the engraving of his arms he was ſtyled "Thomas Dunckerley Fitz-George.

14th. At Berlin, in his 67th year, Ignatius Count Von Kraſicki, of the holy Roman empire, and prince-biſhop of Gneſna; knight of the Pruſſian and Poliſh orders, and of the order of Malta. He was born at Dubiecko, in Poland, in February, 1735. His diſtinguiſhed talents procured him the friendſhip of king Staniſlaus-Auguſtus, who nominated him to the biſhopric of Ermland; and on the death of prince Michael Poniatoſſky, the late king of Pruſſia, Frederick William II. promoted him to the ſee of Gneſna.

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18th. In Dublin, aged 76, the ingenious Mr. Thomas Malton, ſen. of London, well known for his valuable treatiſe on perſpective, illuſtrating the principles of Dr. Brook Taylor, for his public lectures on that art, and for his theoretical and practical geometry.

Lady Bellew, relict of ſir Patrick Bellew, bart.

Sir John Call, bart. who early in life went out to India as an aſſiſtant to, and under the patronage of that able mathematician and philoſopher, Benjamin Robins, eſq. chief engineer and captain-general of all the artillery in the Eaſt India company's ſettlements, who dying in July, 1751, Mr. Call continued in the ſervice, ſtudying that branch of ſcience with much ſucceſs, together with ſuch a judicious exertion of it in the various expeditions carried on in the Carnatic under captain, afterwards lord Clive, generals Lawrence, Caillaud, and others, that, in the year 1757, he was raiſed to the rank of colonel and chief engineer of all the coaſt of Coromandel; and in 1765, as a farther proof of his ſuperior abilities and integrity, the Eaſt India company appointed him to a ſeat in the council of Fort St. George, which, with other ſituations of importance, both civil and military, he held until the year 1770, when, after a period of arduous ſervice of twenty years and upwards, he reſigned his appointments, and embarked for England, and, in the following year, was choſen high ſheriff of the county of Cornwall. In March, 1772, he married Philadelphia, third daughter and coheireſs of William Battie; was created an Engliſh baronet in 1791, with remainder to his ſons, two of whom, with his lady and four daughters, ſurvive him. He is ſucceeded in his title and eſtates by his eldeſt ſon, now ſir William Call.

Aged 77, the hon. John Bulkeley Coventry Bulkeley, only brother of the earl of Coventry. By virtue of an act of parliament he took his additional name of Bulkeley.

19th. The lady of ſir Richard Cope, bart. D. D. prebendary of Weſtminſter.

At his houſe in Great Ormond-ſtreet, aged 71, John Holliday, eſq. of Lincoln's inn, barriſter at law, F. R. S. a governor of the royal hoſpitals of Chriſt, Bridewell, and Bethlehem, and of the Foundling hoſpital; and an active member of the ſociety of arts and manufactures, for which he had lately drawn up a memoir of the late Owen Saluſbury Brereton, eſq. and of which he would probably have been elected a vice-preſident.

Lady Harriet Bennett, daughter of the earl of Tankerville.

Hon. Robert Arbuthnot, third ſon of the late John, viſcount Arbuthnot.

Aged 80, John Knowles, eſq. admiral of the white.

Hon. John David Coleyear, ſon of the earl of Portmore.

21ſt. Shot himſelf in a fit of inſanity, ſir John Swin Dyer.

25th. In his 49th year, of the gout in his ſtomach, with which he had been ſome weeks afflicted, the hon. lieutenant-general ſir Charles Stuart, K. B. brother to the marquis of Bute, colonel of the 26th regiment of foot, and M. P. for Poole, in the county of Dorſet.

31ſt. Lady Duntze, relict of ſir John Duntze, bart.

In Syria, of the plague, general Koehler,

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Koehler, one of the moſt ſkilful officers in the Britiſh ſervice, and who had been delegated by the Britiſh government to train and diſcipline the Turkiſh army. He was by birth an American, and ſurvived his lady only fifteen days.

Lady Paul, relict of the late ſir George Oneſiphorus Paul, bart.

April 2d. Killed, in the memorable action off Copenhagen, captain Edward Riou, of the Amazon, by a chain-ſhot from the crown battery at Copenhagen, at the moment he was cheering his men, eight of whom had the inſtant before been killed by a ſingle ſhot. There were no fewer than eighty pieces of cannon playing at one time on the Amazon frigate from the above battery. He was the officer who experienced ſuch diſtreſs, and diſplayed ſuch magnanimity, on the ſhipwreck of the Guardian frigate. (See our Regiſter for the year 1790, p. 254.)

Captain Grant, of the rifle regiment, who volunteered his ſervices in the Copenhagen expedition, he had his head taken off by a cannon-ball in the ſame engagement, as effectually as if it had been ſevered from his body by a ſcimitar. He was particularly unfortunate in battle, having received three wounds in one day in Holland.

Miſs Phillips, eldeſt daughter of the late ſir John Phillips, bart. and ſiſter to lord Milford.

9th. Aged 81, Joſeph Gape, eſq. one of the oldeſt benchers of the Middle Temple; ſenior governor of Bridewell and Bethlehem hoſpitals; and ſenior alderman of the borough of St. Alban's, of which he had been mayor, 1746, 1761, 1797. He was buried with his father, April 16, in the abbey-church.

24th. Maurice Nelſon, eſq. one of the ſecretaries of the navy-board, and brother to lord Nelſon.

25th. John Bond, eſq. lord of the manor of Hendon, Middleſex, and one of the magiſtrates of Bow-ſtreet office. He purchaſed the manor of Mr. Garrick's deviſees, 1790.

29th. In the county of Tipperary, Mr. Price, who, having taken a farm againſt the wiſh of thoſe who took upon them to regulate the rents of land, received a written intimation, which appears, from the evidence of a member of the houſe of commons, to have been to the following effect:

"*Liberty Hall.*

"Take notice, that you have been tried and convicted of having taken ——— farm. You have been ſentenced to death. You are to give up the farm; otherwiſe, the warrant for your execution is in the hands of the executioner."

This account the ſaid member received from a brother of the deceaſed, who ſhewed him another letter to the ſame effect, which was ſerved on a tenant of Mr. Price at the ſame time, who, in conſequence, fled the country. Mr. Price was, within a few days, in the open field at noon, fired at and murdered by a ſingle individual, who was ſuffered to depart at his leiſure, without any endeavour being made to detain him, though many people were at work at no great diſtance.

Of a cancer in his tongue, in his 87th year, general Cyrus Trapaud, colonel of the 52d regiment of foot, and the oldeſt general in his majeſty's ſervice. He was related to marſhal Turenne, the duke de Bouillon, the duke la Fouace, and ſeveral other of the French nobility. His family came to this country early in

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the laſt century, on account of the perſecution of the proteſtants. His father having had a regiment in France, queen Anne gave him a regiment of dragoons, which he commanded in Portugal. The general ſerved under his late majeſty George II. in the battles of Dettingen and Vall, in Germany; and was at thoſe of Fontenoy, Falkirk, Culloden, and Guadaloupe.

9th. Aged 69, ſir Lambert Blackwell, bart. By his death the title of baronet, conferred on his grandfather, July 16th, 1718, becomes extinct. He has bequeathed all his eſtates, with his valuable collections of paintings, books, coins, &c. to William Foſter, junior, eſq. of Norwich.

At Bath, aged 95, John Chapman, eſq. ſenior alderman and ſix times mayor of that city. He was born Oct. 6, 1706; elected into the common council Oct. 25, 1731; ſucceeded as an alderman 1742; was choſen mayor September 1744; again 1754, 1761, 1770, 1777, and 1779; and, at the age of 95, ſucceeded as heir-at-law to the property of an affluent relation who died inteſtate.

13th. At Iſleworth, Middleſex, of which pariſh he was vicar, in his 80th year, the rev. William Drake, M. A. F. A. S. a gentleman well known in the literary world as a ſcholar and antiquary, and as the ſon of the celebrated author of the Eboracum (or the hiſtory of York) and parliamentary hiſtory.

30th. Aged 77, William Graves, eſq. one of the oldeſt benchers of the Middle Temple, a maſter in chancery, and elder brother to admiral lord Graves.

June. At his houſe in Paternoſter-row, in the 65th year of his age, Mr. George Robinſon, an eminent bookſeller. He was born at Dalſton, in Cumberland, and, about 1755, came up to London in ſearch of ſuch employment as he might be qualified for by a decent education, and a great ſhare of natural ſenſe and ſhrewdneſs. His firſt engagement was in the houſe of Mr. John Rivington, from which he went to that of Mr. Johnſtone, on Ludgate-hill, where he remained until 1764, when he commenced buſineſs as a bookſeller in Paternoſter-row, in partnerſhip with Mr. John Roberts, who died about 25 years ſince. The commencement of an undertaking like this required a capital; and the uniform habits of induſtry and punctuality which Mr. Robinſon had diſplayed, while managing the concerns of others, pointed him out as one who might be intruſted. In a ſhort time theſe ſmall beginnings ſwelled into concerns of importance. Mr. Robinſon's active ſpirit, knowledge of buſineſs, and reputable connection, ſoon enabled him to achieve the higher branches of the buſineſs, and, in the purchaſe of copy-rights, he became the rival of the moſt formidable of the old eſtabliſhed houſes; ſo that, before the year 1780, he had the largeſt wholeſale trade that was ever carried on by an individual. In 1784, he took into partnerſhip his ſon and brother, who are his ſucceſſors. In the riſe and progreſs of ſo great a concern, Mr. Robinſon was an eminent proof (if ſo plain a truth requires a proof) how much may be done by habits of attention, induſtry, and, above all, inflexible integrity and perſeverance.

7th. Suddenly, on his eſtate at Barbadoes, ſir Francis Ford, bart. of Kember, Surrey, ſo created February 14,

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14, 1793. He was formerly a fellow-commoner of St. John's college, Cambridge, B. A. 1778.

At St. Petersburg, the Ruſſian general Hermann, who commanded the imperial auxiliaries in Holland, in the campaign of 1799, under the duke of York, and was taken priſoner there at the battle of Bergen.

John Campbell, of Stonefield, lord Stonefield, one of the lords of ſeſſion in Scotland.

Aged 76, Elizabeth, counteſs dowager of Glencairn. She was daughter of Mr. Macguire, and mother of four ſons and two daughters by the late earl, who died in 1775.

21ſt. John Joſeph Powell, eſq. barriſter at law. He was author of "The Law of Mortgages," 8vo. 1785; "Eſſay on the Learning reſpecting the Creation and Execution of Powers; and alſo reſpecting the Nature and Effect of leaſing Powers," 8vo. 1787. He alſo aſſiſted in completing Fearne's poſthumous publication.

In an advanced age, the Ruſſian field-marſhal prince Repnin.

At Paris, aged 68, John Mathurin Mazeas, formerly a canon of Notre Dame, and profeſſor of philoſophy in the univerſity of Paris; alſo a member of the academy of ſciences at Berlin. He was author of "Elements of Arithmetick, Algebra, and Geometry," publiſhed in 8vo. 1758, and which has ſince gone through ſeven editions. Having loſt his all at the revolution, François de Neufchateau, when miniſter of the interior, procured for him a penſion of 1800 livres, which he received during three years; and the national convention, in the third year, when they voted rewards to different learned men, decreed him 3000 livres. Notwithſtanding theſe decrees, however, he was wholly indebted to the gratitude of one, who had formerly been his ſervant, for ſupport during the laſt three years of his life.

At Paris, aged 73, Charles Geo. Fenouillot de Falbain, a native of Salins, in Franche Comté, and author of ſeveral dramatic pieces, the moſt popular of which, "Les Deux Avares," ("The Two Miſers"), ſet to muſic by Gretry, has been tranſlated, and performed on the Engliſh ſtage.

Major-general Richard Betteſworth, late colonel-commandant of the 2d battalion of royal Iriſh artillery.

July 2d. Aged 68, Robert Edward Petre, 9th baron Petre, of Writtle, in Eſſex. He ſucceeded his father in 1742. This much lamented nobleman was twice married; 1ſt, 1762, to Anne, daughter of Philip Howard, eſq. of Buckingham, Norfolk, brother to Edward duke of Norfolk, by whom he had Robert Edward, his ſucceſſor, born 1763, George William, died 1797, Anne Catharine, born 1769, and Philip Howard, born 1773; 2dly, to Juliana Howard, ſiſter to the heir of the preſent duke, who has a jointure of 2000*l.* per annum, and 4000*l.* bequeathed to her for the furniture of a town reſidence. He annually expended 5000*l.* in charities, a practice that was not diſcovered till after his lordſhip's death, and one proof, among many, that he deſerved the character which he bore. Though a ſtriking ornament of ſociety, and a man who would have done honour to any ſituation, however high, his lordſhip was prevented from ever taking his ſeat in parliament, on account of his adherence to the faith in which he was

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born. He was, like all his anceſtors, a Roman catholic by profeſſion; but, as a true and liberal Chriſtian, freed from the dangerous trammels of ſuperſtition, he poſſeſſed a mind that nobly ſoared above all the unworthy actions of religious prejudice. His lordſhip's remains were removed, on the 5th, from Park-lane, to the family ſeat at Thorndenhall, Eſſex, where they lay in ſtate till the 9th, on which day they were accompanied to the grave by all his lordſhip's tenants in mourning, and the volunteer corps of the neighbourhood, and interred with military honours.—On the 21ſt a ſolemn requiem and high maſs was performed in the chapel of the elector of Bavaria, in Warwick-ſtreet, accompanied with all the correſponding rites of the catholic worſhip. The chapel was crowded in every part with perſons of the firſt faſhion, particularly of the catholic nobility, who attended to pay the laſt tribute of reſpect and affection to the memory of this nobleman.

10th. Sir Griffith Boynton, bart. LL. D. He was the only ſon of the late ſir Griffith, who died in 1778, by his ſecond wife, Mary, daughter of ſir James Heblethwayte, whom he married Auguſt 8, 1768.

12th. At the Abbey-houſe, Chertſey, Surrey, the relict of ſir William Young, bart.

William Barrington, viſcount Barrington, ſon of the late general Barrington, and nephew to the biſhop of Durham. He ſucceeded his uncle, the ſecond viſcount, 1793.

20th. Of a third ſtroke of apoplexy, aged 53, ſir George William Preſcot, bart. ſecond ſon of the late George Preſcot, eſq. who died April 21, 1790. He married, April 23, 1774, the eldeſt daughter of the late Beeſton Long, eſq. by whom he had iſſue two ſons, George Beeſton, his ſucceſſor, and William Willoughby, and one daughter.

Aged 70, Thomas Fowler, M. D. of York, formerly phyſician of the Stafford infirmary. He was a graduate of the univerſity of Edinburgh, and publiſhed ſome valuable works on the medicinal effects of tobacco and arſenic.

In his 76th year, the right hon. ſir Grey Cooper, bart. of Gogar, in Scotland, one of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy council, and in the commiſſion of the peace for the county of Suffolk. His death was very ſudden. About half after five in the morning he rang his bell violently for his valet, whom he deſired to ſaddle a horſe, and ride over to the village, about a mile diſtant, for the doctor; the man ſet off immediately, and returned with the apothecary in leſs than half an hour, but he arrived too late, ſir Grey had breathed his laſt. The meſſenger, ſent to acquaint his ſecond ſon, a colonel in the guards, met him coming to ſpend a few days with his father. His eldeſt ſon, a clergyman, at the time in Wales, ſucceeds to the family eſtate, of near 9000*l*. a year. After paſſing through the courſe of general education, which is uſual for an Engliſh gentleman, he entered the Temple, ſtudied the common law, and was, in due time, called to the bar. In 1765 he diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a zealous votary of the political principles of the Rockingham party. When that party came into adminiſtration, they were arraigned as the creatures of the earl of Bute, in a pamphlet, the compoſition of Mr. Lloyd, the private ſecretary of the right hon. George Grenville, who was at the head

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head of the miniſtry they ſucceeded. In anſwer to that pamphlet, ſir Grey (then Mr.) Cooper, publiſhed "A Pair of Spectacles for ſhort-ſighted Politicians," of which the miniſter and the public approved. He ſoon after wrote another tract in their defence, which appeared under the title of "The Merits of the New Adminiſtration truly ſtated." It was eſteemed ſtill more able, and not leſs ſeaſonable, than the former. On account chiefly of theſe ſervices, he was then appointed ſecretary to the treaſury. Relinquiſhing, for this office, the practice of the law, he obtained, at the ſame time, the grant of a penſion for life, to commence from the time when he ſhould retire, by diſmiſſal or reſignation, from an office which, from its nature, he could not expect to hold permanently. He did not retire with the miniſters to whom he owed his riſe. The duke of Grafton ſucceeded; and ſir Grey Cooper remained in the treaſury. To lord North, after the duke of Grafton's reſignation, his ſervices were ſtill acceptable; nor were his political connections and principles of a nature to urge him to abandon his office. He continued to perform the ſame duties till the final diſſolution of lord North's adminiſtration in 1782.

By ſhooting herſelf, Miſs Hompeſch, daughter of general Hompeſch. From the teſtimony of a female ſervant of Mrs. Richardſon, at whoſe houſe the general and his daughter reſided, in Batterſea-fields, it appeared that the deceaſed was for ſome time in a deſponding way, the cauſe of which ſhe would not communicate to any one; that, on the day previous to the melancholy cataſtrophe, ſhe wrote two letters, one to her father, and the other to a friend in Germany. Theſe letters were found on a table in the apartment where the raſh act was committed. In the letter to her father ſhe begged, as her dying requeſt, that her heart might be ſent to her dear friend in Germany. Several profeſſional gentlemen attended on the jury when the head was opened, and likewiſe the body, from whence the heart was taken out, by the expreſs deſire of the general, to be ſent according to the tenor of the deceaſed's letter. The body was conveyed to Newington churchyard for interment, attended by one mourning coach. The deceaſed was a natural daughter, an only child, beautiful in her perſon and amiable in her manners. Exceſſive ſenſibility to a circumſtance of a domeſtic nature is the cauſe aſſigned for her melancholy fate.

22d. Aſſaſſinated, at his houſe at Dolling, in Auſtria, the imperial major-general count de Lichtenberg.

23d. At the baths of Baden, the prince of Belmonte Pignatelli.

Auguſt 13th. In Dublin, Robert Cunninghame, lord Roſſmore, a lord of the privy-council in Ireland. His lordſhip was deſcended from a branch of the Cunninghams, earls of Glencairne, and entered into the army very young. At the period of his deceaſe he was one of the oldeſt generals in the army, and held the ſinecure office of governor of Kinſale fort. He married, in 1754, Elizabeth Murray, ſiſter of the counteſs of Clermont, but leaving no iſſue by her ladyſhip, the barony devolves, according to the limitation of the patent, to his nephew, the preſent lord Roſſmore.

At Liverpool, in his 52d year,

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Mr. Wild, upwards of 20 years prompter of Covent-garden theatre.

In his 80th year, George Gordon, third earl of Aberdeen. He ſucceed his father 1745. He married Catharine, daughter of Mr. Oſwald Hanſon, of Wakefield, in the county of York, by whom he had two ſons, George, married, 1782, to Miſs Baird, and died, leaving a ſon, who ſucceeds his grandfather; his other ſon was William; and four daughters, Catharine, Anne, Suſan, and Mary.

16th. Sir William Plomer, knt. alderman of Baſſiſhaw ward, London, to which he was elected October 23, 1772; ſerved the office of ſheriff in 1774, and lord mayor in 1781.

21ſt. The hon. William Biſhop, late preſident of Barbadoes.

23d. Aged 67, William Rix, eſq. town-clerk of the city of London. He had filled various offices in the city for upwards of 40 years, 26 of which he had diſcharged the duties of the office of town-clerk.

September 3. Aged 74, the hon. John Yorke, fourth ſon of Philip lord Hardwicke, late lord chancellor. He was clerk of the crown for life, patentee for making out commiſſions of bankruptcy, M. P. for Ryegate, and F. R. S. He married, 1762, Elizabeth, only daughter of Reginald Lygon, eſq. of Madreſfield, in the county of Worceſter, who died in 1766, leaving a daughter, Jemima, born June 1, 1763.

7th. At Meiningen, aged 77, her ſerene highneſs Sophia Antoinetta, dutcheſs dowager of Saxe-Coburg. She was a daughter of Ferdinand Albert, duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttel, and born 1724.

12th. On board the Tiſiphone, at ſea, whither he had been ordered by his phyſicians for the benefit of his health, which had for ſome time paſt been in a very dangerous ſtate, lord Hugh Seymour, vice-admiral of the blue, commander-in-chief on the Jamaica ſtation, and M. P. for Portſmouth. He had been attacked by the fatal fever of that clime about the middle of the ſummer, from which he had but a ſhort and temporary reſpite, as it returned with increaſed violence on the 1ſt of September, and on the 12th, in the 46th year of his age, deprived the ſervice of a gallant and meritorious commander, and ſociety of an eſtimable member. He has left a family of ſeven orphan children to lament the ſeverity of their loſs, from whom their mother, lady Horatia, had but a few months previouſly been taken off. His lordſhip was third brother to the marquis of Hertford; made poſt in 1779, and commanded the Leviathan, of 74 guns, in the memorable action of June 1, 1794, when he captured the Sans Pareil, of 98 guns, in which ſhip, on being promoted to the rank of rear-admiral, he hoiſted his flag in June, 1795, where it continued to fly till his death. He became, ſhortly afterwards, one of the lords of the admiralty, but ſoon quitted that official appointment for the command of the Leeward iſland ſtation; whence, after his conqueſt of Surinam, he ſucceeded to the chief command of the Jamaica ſtation, where he cloſed his honourable career of public ſervices.

Lady Louiſa Iſabella Bridgeman, daughter of Edmund Boyle, earl of Cork and Orrery, in Ireland, and baron Boyle, in England. Her ladyſhip married, 1792, the hon. and rev. George Bridgeman, brother of

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of Orlando, lord Bradford, by whom ſhe has left iſſue.

The moſt noble Arthur, marquis of Downſhire, earl of Hillſborough, viſcount Kilwarlin, viſcount Hillſborough, baron Hill, in Ireland, earl of Hillſborough, viſcount Fairford, baron Harwich, in England, hereditary conſtable of Hillſborough fort, governor of the county of Down, and LL. D. He was born in London, 1753, and married, 1785, Mary Sandys, niece of Edwin lord Sandys, baron of Ombersley (on whoſe deceaſe without iſſue the eſtates of Ombersley, in Worceſterſhire, accrued to the marchioneſs), and has left iſſue Arthur Blundell Sandys Trumball Hill, earl of Hillſborough, now marquis of Downſhire, born 1788, at the marquis's houſe, in Hanover-ſquare; lord Anthony, born 1792, and two daughters. The marquis was the chief repreſentative of his noble houſe, in Ireland, the younger branch of which is repreſented by viſcount Dungannon, and was the only ſon of Wills, marquis of Downſhire, principal ſecretary of ſtate, 1768, for the American department, better known by the title of earl of Hillſborough, by the lady Margaretta Fitzgerald, ſiſter of James, duke of Leinſter; and of his ſiſters, the eldeſt, lady Mary, is the preſent marchioneſs of Salisbury, the youngeſt, lady Charlotte, is now counteſs dowager Talbot. His lordſhip entered early into the army, and was in ſervice in the time of the American war. On the deceaſe of his father, in 1793, he ſucceeded to the honours and the large eſtates in both kingdoms, and led a very uſeful life between his manſion in Ireland, and his ſeats in this country, attending to his ſenatorial duties in the two houſes of lords. Immediately after the cloſe of the laſt ſeſſion of the preſent parliament, his lordſhip returned to Ireland, where his death took place, which was occaſioned by a ſevere attack of the gout in his ſtomach.

13th. Major William Bulkeley, of the invalid eſtabliſhment at Chelſea hoſpital.

18th. Sir Chriſtopher Sykes, bart. ſo created March 4, 1783, LL. D. and in the commiſſion of the peace for the eaſt-riding of the county of York.

Lady Elizabeth Kemp, wife of the rev. Dr. Kemp, one of the miniſters of Edinburgh, and ſiſter to the earl of Hopetoun.

19th. In his 80th year, the rev. Richard Rothwell, of St. John's college, Cambridge; B. A. 1744; M. A. 1746; ſuppoſed to have died poſſeſſed of property to the amount of 300,000*l.*

In his 90th year, Mr. J. Large. He was the father of 13 children, nine of whom are now living, with 58 grandchildren, and 33 great-grandchildren, altogether 111, excluſive of thoſe who have been united to the family by marriage, amounting to 25, making, in the whole, 126 perſons.

20th. Sir John Greſham, bart. of Titſey, near Godſtone, Surrey, deſcended from ſir John, uncle to ſir Thomas, who built the Royal Exchange. He was the ſixth baronet, and ſucceeded his elder brother, Charles, who died without iſſue; and ſir John leaving none, though he married, 1765, Henrietta Maria eldeſt daughter of ſir Henry Clayton, bart. and ſiſter of ſir Robert the family is extinct.

24th. Thomas St. Lawrence, earl of Howth, viſcount St. Lawrence, and twenty-ſeventh baron Howth, originall

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originally by tenure, and afterwards by patent, one of his majesty's most honourable privy-counsellors in Ireland, governor of the county of Dublin, &c. &c. His lordship was born in 1730; succeeded to the barony in 1748, on the death of his father, William, the twenty-sixth lord; and, in 1767, was advanced to the dignities of viscount St. Lawrence and earl of Howth. Thomas earl of Howth had issue, by Isabella King, sister of Edward earl of Kingston, three sons and three daughters, viz. 1. William lord St. Lawrence, now earl of Howth, married, 1777, to the lady Mary Bermingham, second daughter and co-heiress of Thomas earl of Louth, and twenty-second lord Athenry (on whose decease without issue male the barony of Athenry became in abeyance between his three daughters), and has issue four daughters, viz. ladies Harriet, Isabella, Matilda, and Mary; 2. Thomas, in holy orders, dean of Cork; 3. Henry, in the army, deceased; 4. Isabella, married, 1773, to Dudley lord Sidney, in Ireland, who dying without issue, that barony became extinct; 5. Lady Elizabeth, married, 1786, to colonel Irwin; 6. Lady Frances.

26th. At the hot-wells, Bristol, in his 25th year, lord Augustus Fitzroy, fourth son of the duke of Grafton, post-captain in the royal navy, and late commander of his majesty's ship L'Oiseau.

October 1st In his 48th year, the rev. Lionel Smythe, seventh viscount Strangford; born 1753; entered early into the army, and served many campaigns in North America, but retired from the military profession, and, in 1785, took holy orders, and was presented, 1788, by George, marquis of Buckingham, lord lieutenant of Ireland, to the living of Kilbrew, in the diocese of Meath. He married at New York, Sept. 5, 1779, Maria Eliza, eldest daughter of Frederick Philips, esq. of that province, and had by her two sons and two daughters, viz. Percy, born 1780; Lionel, 1783; Eliza, 1781; and Louisa, 1785. He succeeded his father in 1787.

In his 9th year, sir William Hay, bart. The title devolves to his cousin, the infant son of the late colonel Lewis Hay, who was killed at the landing of the British troops at Helder.

10th. Suddenly, at Bassingbourne-hall, near Dunmow, in the county of Essex, one of the seats of sir P. Parker, where he had resided two years, for the benefit of his health, his grace Dr. Robert Fowler, archbishop of Dublin twenty-one years, being first appointed bishop of Killaloe 1771, under the administration of lord Townshend, and translated to Dublin 1778, under that of lord Buckingham. He was of Trinity college, Cambridge; B. A. 1747, M. A. 1751, S. T. P. 1764. He has left one son, the present archdeacon of Dublin, and two daughters, the one countess of Kilkenny, and the other the wife of the hon. and rev. Richard Bourke, dean of Ardagh, brother to the earl of Mayo.

Rev. Mr. Almosino, supreme judge, in ecclesiastical matters, within the pale of the Portuguese Jews synagogue.

At Sutton-on-the-Forest, near York, aged 82, the rev. Henry Goodricke, prebendary of Grindall in that cathedral, rector of Huntingore, and vicar of Aldborough, both in that county, and younger brother

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brother of the late sir John Goodricke, bart. of Ribston-park. He was a gentleman long and well known on the turf; kept many fine race-horses, some of the best now existing; but, in respect for his clerical character, he always ran them in the names of some other gentlemen.

Lady Hannah Stratford, eldest daughter of John, earl of Aldborough, and sister of Edward, the late earl.

In his 60th year, John Brown, the senior associate engraver of the royal academy, to which situation he was elected about thirty years ago, nearly at the same time with Chambers and Ravenet, who were both associate engravers, and soon after the institution of the royal academy, which obtained the patronage of his majesty in 1768. Brown, in his early youth, had a great propensity to the arts, and, about the year 1755, was apprenticed to J. Tinney, an engraver and print-seller in Fleet-street, who was also master to Anthony Walker and William Woollett. Tinney dying during Brown's apprenticeship, Woollett, who was about six years older, and who at that time had made a considerable progress in his profession, took Brown under his tuition, and, in the course of a few years, he very much assisted Woollett in etching the landscapes of several of his most celebrated prints, particularly his large plate of Celadon and Amelia, the Jocund Peasants, and its companions, &c. &c. Brown first distinguished himself by a large landscape he engraved of St. John preaching in the wilderness, the figures of which were engraved by Hall. Indeed, Brown's talent lay principally in landscapes, particularly in etching them; the boldness, brilliancy, and beautiful variety of which were very much in Woollett's manner, and perhaps equal in merit to any produced by that celebrated engraver, and inferior to none in this country, except those executed by Vivares, the taste of whose foliage, &c. surpasses all competition.

Nov At Nice, Jos. de Beauchamp, born in 1732; entered, 1767, into the order of Bernardines, and took his departure for Asia in 1781, with his uncle, who was appointed bishop of Babylon. In this his first voyage he steered his course along the Tigris and Euphrates, from Diarbeker to the Persian gulph. He made a collection of medals, inscriptions, and designs of the monuments of ancient Babylon, as well as Arabic manuscripts, which he presented to the Abbé Barthelemy. Of his account of the ruins of Babylon, the reader will find a translation in our Register for 1793, vol. xxxv. page 352. In 1787 he made a second voyage upon the Caspian sea. He was beaten by robbers, says citizen Lalande, and contracted a fever, which lasted eighteen months; but it did not prevent him from continuing his voyage. It was in the course of this voyage that he observed the most important eclipse of the moon of which the history of astronomy preserves any remembrance. In 1795 he made a third voyage; and, through the means of citizen Volney, he was appointed consul at Mascate, in Arabia; at which place, however, he never arrived, being taken by the English, with whom he remained three years a captive. The peace having at length given him his liberty, he arrived sick at Nice, where he died at

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at the moment when the first consul had appointed him commissary-general at Lisbon.

18th. Aged 55, James Hugh Smyth Barry, esq. of Belmont, in Cheshire. He was of the noble house of the earls of Barrymore in Ireland, and his father was the hon. John Smyth Barry, fourth and youngest son of James earl of Barrymore, grandfather of Richard the present earl. Mr. Barrymore was next in succession to the earldom of Barrymore after the hon. Augustus Barry, only brother of the present lord, who, as baron Barry of Olethan, ranks as one of the most ancient peers in the three kingdoms. His family estates in England and Ireland amounted to 25,000 *l.* per annum; to which, in case of his dying without a will, the present earl of Barrymore was heir-at-law. Considerable estates devolved to him through his mother, Dorothy, eldest daughter and coheiress of Hugh Smyth, esq. of Weald-hall, Essex.

20th. Lady Juliana Penn, fourth daughter of Thomas, first and late earl of Pomfret, and relict of the late hon. Thomas Penn, of Braywick, Berks, formerly an hereditary proprietor of Pennsylvania, to whom she was married 1751, and who died 1775, leaving by her a son, John, sheriff of Bucks 1799, and several daughters.

24th. At Vienna, aged 77, field-marshal count Lascey, a knight of the golden fleece, privy-counsellor of the emperor, a knight of the military order of Maria Theresa, minister of state and of conferences, general field-marshal, and proprietor of a regiment of cuirassiers. He was born at St. Petersburg, October 21, 1725, and descended of one of the most ancient families of Normandy, which followed William the Conqueror to England. A hundred years afterwards, under the reign of Henry II. his branch of the family established itself in Ireland, and occupied the first departments in the state. Peter de Lascey, count of the holy empire, left Ireland with James II. in 1698, and entered into the service of France, which he quitted for that of Russia, in which he died, when field-marshal and governor of Livonia. His son, Francis Maurice, of whom we are now speaking, quitted Russia in 1735, and was educated at Vienna, where, having had the honour of being presented to the reigning empress queen, she appointed him her chamberlain in 1741, and in 1743 he was a cornet in the Austrian service. He made his first campaign in 1744, as adjutant to count Browne, and was made a captain after the battle of Valetri, when he distinguished himself in a very particular manner. In the following campaigns against Prussia, he was at the battles of Strigau, Trauman, Reffeldorff; and, in Italy, was in the battle of Piacenza, afterwards at the taking of Genoa, and soon after at the battle of Rancoux. In 1748 he was shut up in Maestricht, and was relieved only by the peace from that disagreeable position. In 1753 he was promoted to the rank of major-general, in recompense for the services he performed in the seven years war. In 1758 he was appointed field-marshal lieutenant, after having relieved the city of Olmutz; and received, in the same year, the grand cross of the order of Maria Theresa. In 1760 he commanded at the battle of Torgau; and, in 1766, was made field-marshal,

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ſhal, preſident of the council of war, &c. &c. The part that great general acted in the campaigns ſpoken of has been too conſpicuous and well-known to require any details. His military ſkill was equal to his bravery, and his whole life a ſeries of glorious achievements.

27th. Aged 70, lady Elizabeth Noel, eldeſt daughter of Baptiſt, fourth earl of Gainſborough, who died 1750; ſiſter to the two laſt earls; and was born 1731.

Aged about 70, Joſeph earl of Wiltown, viſcount Ruſsborough of Ruſſeltown, and baron of Ruſsborough. He was the eldeſt ſon of Joſeph the late earl, by Cecilia Leigh, his firſt counteſs, whom he ſucceeded in the honours 1783; but his lordſhip dying unmarried, the earldom devolves to the hon. Brice Leeſon.

At Turnham-green, Mr. Armſtrong, the celebrated ſheriff's officer. He was at the top of his profeſſion as a bailiff many years; and, in that time, had ſeveral *touching* interviews with nearly all the daſhing characters of the laſt half century. He retired with a fortune of not leſs than 60,000*l.* and built a houſe on Turnham-green, whence he baniſhed his next door neighbour, ſir Francis Buller, who did not like to be thus elbowed by a ſubaltern of the law. Mr. Armſtrong's fortune devolves to his two ſons-in-law, the one Mr. Dyſon, ſon of the late ſolicitor to the admiralty, the other a reſpectable farmer in Kent.

Dec. William Hamilton, eſq. R. A. He attended the royal academy, on Nov. 28, as a monthly viſiter, in perfect health; but, on his return home in the evening, was ſeized with the fever of which he died. His remains were interred in St. Anne's church, attended by many members of the royal academy.

The right hon. ſir John Parnell, bart. one of his majeſty's privy-counſellors in England and Ireland, repreſentative in the imperial parliament for the Queen's county, and formerly chancellor of the exchequer in Ireland. He ſucceeded to the title, 1782, on the deceaſe of his father, ſir John, one of the judges of the king's-bench, and married Letitia Charlotte, youngeſt daughter and co-heireſs of the right hon. ſir Arthur Brooke, bart. and ſiſter of Selina, lady viſcounteſs de Veſey, and has left iſſue. He was deſcended from the ancient family of the Parnells of Cheſhire, who removed to Ireland ſoon after the reſtoration, and was great nephew of the poet Parnell.

7th. At Paris, Charles John Clarke, eſq. of Hitchin priory, in the county of Herts. His death was in conſequence of an injury he received, Nov. 9, by the fall of a temporary building on which he was ſeated to view ſome fire-works. The firſt conſul, on hearing of the accident, ſent his own ſurgeon to attend him, with a meſſage, that, as ſoon as his recovery would admit the preſence of a ſtranger, he would pay him a viſit. On the 30th of November he wrote to a friend in London, that he hoped in a few days to proceed to the warm baths of Italy; but died of a mortification, the ſpine of his back being irrecoverably injured. Mr. Clarke was the only ſon of a ſiſter of the late Edward Radcliffe, eſq. of Hitchin priory, and ſucceeded to that very large eſtate on the death of another ſiſter's ſon, ſir Charles T. Radcliffe.

The

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The moſt noble Letitia, marchioneſs of Antrim. Her ladyſhip was the eldeſt daughter of Hervey, viſcount Montmorres; and was firſt married to the honourable Arthur Trevor, ſon of Arthur, viſcount Dungannon, and by him (who, dying before his father, never attained the title) was mother of the preſent lord. The marchioneſs married, ſecondly, 1774, Randal, marquis of Antrim, knight of the order of the Bath; and had iſſue Anne Catharine Macdonnell, counteſs of Antrim (who ſucceeded to that title on the deceaſe of her father, but the marquiſate became extinct), and lady of ſir Henry Vane, bart. of Wynyard, in the county of Durham, chief of that family, from the younger branches of which deſcend the earls of Weſtmorland and Darlington.

William Edwardes, lord Kenſington. He has left iſſue an only ſon, William, born 1777, now lord Kenſington. His lordſhip was the grandſon and heir of Edward-Henry, earl of Warwick and Holland, and baron Kenſington, on whoſe deceaſe, 1759, the titles became extinct; but the eſtates devolved to the iſſue of the lady Eliabeth Rich by Francis Edwardes, eſq. William, the only ſurviving ſon of the lady Elizabeth, being the repreſentative of the earls of Warwick, was, in 1776, created to the barony of Kenſington; but the earldom of Warwick was conferred on the Grevilles. William, lord Kenſington, was at the period of his death at the advanced age of 90, from which he was uſually called the father of the houſe of commons, being the oldeſt member of that houſe.

Lady of ſir Thomas Roberts, bart.

Of apoplexy, with which he was ſtruck while walking in the electoral park, and paſſed a very cold night in the open air, in a ſtate of inſenſibility, though when found in the morning he was ſtill alive, Nauman, maſter of the electoral chapel at Dreſden, and one of the firſt compoſers in Germany.

Of a malignant fever, at Chateauneuf, in the department of Saone and Loire, in the houſe of citizen Dree, his brother-in-law, the celebrated Dolomieu, member of the French national inſtitute.

Aged 38, the rev. James Hurdis, B.D. of Magdalen college, Oxford, M. A. 1787, and fellow of that college; elected profeſſor of poetry in that univerſity 1793. Mr. Hurdis has diſtinguiſhed himſelf, both as a poet and divine, in the following publications: "The Village Curate," 1788, 4to.; a volume of poems, 8vo.; "A ſhort critical Diſquiſition on the true Meaning of the Word *tanninim*, found in Gen. i. 21," 1790, when he was curate of Burwaſh, Suſſex, on parting from the inhabitants of which he addreſſed to them "Reflections on the Commencement of a new Year," 1793; "Curſory Remarks on the Arrangement of Shakeſpeare's Plays, occaſioned by reading Mr. Malone's Eſſay on the chronological Order of thoſe celebrated Pieces;" "Select critical Remarks upon the Engliſh Verſion of the Ten firſt Chapters of Geneſis," 1794; to which his critical diſſertion on Gen. i. 21, above mentioned, which met the approbation of the preſent biſhop of Saliſbury, was intended as a preliminary ſpecimen. His laſt publication was "The Favourite Village, a poem," 1801, 4to.

25th. At Hadley, in her 75th year deſerving

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deserving a high rank on the roll of British literati, Mrs. H. Chapone; to whom the literary world is indebted for many valuable works on education, and elegant pieces of poetry.

26th. At Edinburgh, Andrew Lumisden, esq. at the advanced age of 81 years, in the full possession of all his faculties; distinguished as a man by courteous manners, an amiable disposition, integrity of character, a steady but unaffected adherence to all the rules of decorum; and, as an author, by a work, intitled, "Remarks on the Antiquities of Rome and its Environs." *

During a residence of twenty years in that seat of the fine arts, he collected his materials, not from books alone, but also from a minute examination and exact survey of the objects he meant to describe. His work, beside the general merit of a perspicuous style, correct arrangement and descriptions, always accurate, and sometimes novel, possesses a merit not often met with except in Addison, that the antiquities he describes illustrate the classics, and the classics he quotes illustrate the antiquities.

He passed almost the whole of his life in Rome, Paris, London, or Edinburgh, where his literary talents and pleasing manners rendered him a welcome visiter in the circles of the polite and learned world.

30th. At Lyons, at a dinner given by Talleyrand to the Notables, Visconti, archbishop of Milan, eighty-two years of age, to all appearance in good health, and very lively. He had scarely sat down, when leaning towards Talleyrand to speak to him, he expired on his seat. Moscate, a celebrated physician, who was one of the company, endeavoured in vain to restore him to life; his heart had instantly ceased to beat. He was remarkable for the mildness of his character and the beauty of his person; he did not hesitate, at his time of life, to leave his country, and to traverse Mount Cenis, for the purpose of meeting the representatives of his country, and the first consul of France, at Lyons. He was a descendant of the ancient sovereign dukes of Milan, who, from having abandoned their principality to Sforza, in repugnance to the interest of Lewis of Orleans, the husband of Valentina Visconti, gave rise to those wars in the Milanese which, for a long period, rendered that country the burial-place of the French.

SHERIFFS *appointed, by his Majesty in Council, for the Year* 1801.

Bedfordshire. Stephen Raymond, of Potton, esq.

Berks. Onisephorus Elliott Elliott, of Binfield, esq.

Bucks. Edward Bury, of Iver, esq.

Cambridge and Huntingtonshire. Richard Eaton, of Stetchworth, esq.

Cheshire. John Scott Waring, of Ince, esq.

Cumberland. Sir Wilfred Lawson, of Brayton-hall, bart.

Derbyshire. Richard Arkwright, of Cromford, esq.

Devonshire. Peter Bluet, of Halcombe Regis, esq.

Dorsetshire. Thomas Rose Drewe, of Wootton Fitzpayne, esq.

Essex. John Archer Houblon, of Hallingbury-place, esq.

* Some short extracts from this work we gave in our Register for 1797, v. xxxix. p. 421.

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Gloucestershire. John Brown, of Salperton, esq.

Herefordshire. John Skip, of Ledbury, esq.

Hertfordshire. Thomas Fitzherbert, of Shenley, esq.

Kent. Edward Austen, of Godmersham, esq.

Leicestershire. Thomas March Phillips, of Garendon, esq.

Lincolnshire. Charles Mainwaring, of Golthо, esq.

Monmouthshire. Thomas Williams, of Chepstow, esq.

Norfolk. Robert Martham, of Stratton Strawless, esq.

Northamptonshire. Joseph Sibley, of Northampton, esq.

Northumberland. Sir Charles Miles Lambert Monck, of Belsay castle, bart.

Nottinghamshire. William Elliott Elliott, of Nottingham, esq.

Oxfordshire. George Clarke, of Clusterton, esq.

Rutlandshire. William Kemp, of Belton, esq.

Shropshire. Thomas Clarke, of Peplow, esq.

Somersetshire. John Band, of Wookey, esq.

Staffordshire. Thomas Bainbrigge, of Woodseat, esq.

Southampton. William Garrett, of Leigh-house, esq.

Suffolk. Charles Steyneham Collinson, of Sproughton, esq.

Surrey. Bryan Barret, of Stockwell, esq.

Sussex. William Borrer, of Hurst Pierpoint, esq.

Warwickshire. John Stanton, of Kenelworth esq.

Wilts. Thomas Bush, of Bradford, esq.

Worcestershire. Thomas Phillips, of Broadway, esq.

Yorkshire. Richard Thompson, of Weatherley Grange, esq.

SOUTH WALES.

Brecon. Matthew Gwyn, of Abercrave, esq.

Carmarthen. Edward Richard Shewen, of Strady, esq.

Cardigan. John Williams, of Castle-hill, esq.

Glamorgan. Robert Jones, of Fonmon castle, esq.

Pembroke. Morgan Jones, of Kilwendoy, esq.

Radnor. Hugh Powell Evans, of Noyadd, esq.

NORTH WALES.

Anglesea. John Price, of Weru, esq.

Caernarvon. William Harvey, of Bodvel, esq.

Denbigh. John Meredith Mostyn, of Segroit, esq.

Flint. David Pennant, of Downing, esq.

Merioneth. Jonathan Pattingham, of Hendwr, esq.

Montgomery. Joseph Lyon, of Vavor-park, esq.

SHERIFF *appointed, by his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales in Council, for the Year* 1801.

Cornwall. Edward Collins, of Truthan, esq.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX to the CHRONICLE.

London Gazette Extraordinary, April 15, 1801.

Letter from Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Commander-in-Chief of a Squadron of his Majesty's Ships employed on a particular Service, to Evan Nepean, Esq.; dated on Board the London, in Copenhagen Roads, the 6th Instant.

Sir,

YOU will be pleased to acquaint the lords commissioners of the admiralty, that since my letter of the 23d of March, no opportunity of wind offered for going up the Sound until the 25th, when the wind shifted in a most violent squall from the S. W. to the N. W. and N. and blew with such violence, and with so great a sea, as to render it impossible for any ship to have weighed her anchor. The wind and sea were even so violent as to oblige many ships to let go a second anchor to prevent them from driving, notwithstanding they were riding with two cables an end; and, by the morning, the wind veered again to the southward of the west.

On the 30th of last month, the wind having come to the northward, we passed into the Sound with the fleet, but not before I had assured myself of the hostile intentions of the Danes to oppose our passage, as the papers marked Nos. I. II. III. and IV. will prove: after this intercourse, there could be no doubt remaining of their determination to resist.

After anchoring about five or six miles from the island of Huin, I reconnoitred, with vice-admiral lord Nelson, and rear-admiral Graves, the formidable line of ships, radeaus, pontoons, galleys, fire-ships, and gun-boats, flanked and supported by extensive batteries on the two islands called the Crowns; the largest of which was mounted with from 50 to 70 pieces of cannon: these were again commanded by two ships of 70 guns, and a large frigate in the inner road of Copenhagen, and two 64-gun ships (without masts) were moored on the flat, on the starboard side of the entrance into the arsenal.

The day after, the wind being southerly, we again examined their position, and came to the resolution of attacking them from the southward.

Vice-admiral lord Nelson having offered his services for conducting the attack, had, some days before we entered the Sound, shifted his flag to the Elephant; and after having examined and buoyed the outer channel of the Middle Ground, his

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lordship proceeded with the twelve ships of the line named in the margin*, all the frigates, bombs, fire-ships, and all the small vessels; and that evening anchored off Draco-Point to make his disposition for the attack, and wait for the wind to the southward.

It was agreed between us, that the ships remaining with me should weigh at the same moment his lordship did, and menace the Crown batteries, and the four ships of the line that lay at the entrance of the arsenal; as also to cover our disabled ships as they came out of action.

I have now the honour to enclose a copy of vice-admiral lord Nelson's report to me of the action on the 2d instant. His lordship has stated so fully the whole of his proceedings on that day, as only to leave me the opportunity to testify my entire acquiescence and testimony of the bravery and intrepidity with which the action was supported throughout the line.

Was it possible for me to add any thing to the well-earned renown of lord Nelson, it would be by asserting, that his exertions, great as they have heretofore been, never were carried to a higher pitch of zeal for his country's service.

I have only to lament that the fort of attack, confined within an intricate and narrow passage, excluded the ships, particularly under my command, from the opportunity of exhibiting their valour: but I can, with great truth, assert, that the same spirit and zeal animated the whole of the fleet; and I trust, that the contest in which we are engaged will, on some future day, afford them an occasion of shewing that the whole were inspired with the same spirit, had the field been sufficiently extensive to have brought it into action.

It is with the deepest concern I mention the loss of captains Mosse and Riou, two very brave and gallant officers, and whose loss, as I am well informed, will be sensibly felt by the families they have left behind them; the former a wife and children, the latter an aged mother.

From the known gallantry of sir Thomas Thompson on former occasions, the naval service will have to regret the loss of the future exertions of that brave officer, whose leg was shot off.

For all other particulars I beg leave to refer their lordships to captain Otway, who was with lord Nelson in the latter part of the action, and able to answer any questions that may be thought necessary to be put to him. A return of the killed and wounded you will receive herewith.

I have the honour to be, &c.

H. Parker.

P. S. The promotions and appointments that have taken place on this occasion will be sent by the next opportunity that offers; but I cannot close this without acquainting their lordships, that captain Mosse being killed very early in the action, lieutenant John Yelland continued it with the greatest spirit and good conduct: I must, therefore, in justice to his merit, beg leave to recommend him to their lordships favour.

* Elephant, Defiance, Monarch, Bellona, Edgar, Russell, Orion, Glatton, Isis, Agamemnon, Polyphemus, Ardent.

No.

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No. I.

London, in the Categat, 27th March.

From the hoſtile tranſactions of the court of Denmark ſending away his Britannic majeſty's charge d'affaires, the commander-in-chief of his majeſty's fleet is anxious to know what the determination of the Daniſh court is, and whether the commanding officer of Cronberg-caſtle has received orders to fire upon the Britiſh fleet as they paſs into the Sound, as he muſt deem the firing of the firſt gun a declaration of war on the part of Denmark.

(Signed) Hyde Parker.

No. II.

Anſwer.

Cronberg-Caſtle, March 28.

In anſwer to the admiral's honoured letter, I have to inform him, that no orders are given to fire on the Engliſh fleet; an expreſs is gone to Copenhagen, and ſhould any orders be ſent, I ſhall immediately ſend an officer on board to inform the admiral.

(Signed) Stricker, governor.

No. III.

Cronberg-Caſtle, March 28.

In anſwer to your excellency's letter, which I did not receive till the following day, at half-paſt eight, I have the honour to inform you, that his majeſty the king of Denmark did not ſend away the charge d'affaires, but that upon his own demand he obtained a paſſport.

As a ſoldier I cannot meddle with politics; but I am not at liberty to ſuffer a fleet, whoſe intention is not yet known, to approach the guns of the caſtle which I have the honour to command.

In caſe your excellency ſhould think proper to make any propoſals to his majeſty the king of Denmark, I wiſh to be informed thereof, before the fleet approaches nearer to the caſtle. An explicit anſwer is deſired.

(Signed) Stricker.

No. IV.

Anſwer.

On board the London, March 29, One A. M.

Sir,

In anſwer to your excellency's note juſt now received, the underſigned has only to reply, that finding the intentions of the court of Denmark to be hoſtile againſt his Britannic majeſty, he regards the anſwer as a declaration of war, and therefore, agreeably to his inſtructions, can no longer refrain from hoſtilities, however reluctant it may be to his feelings; but at the ſame time will be ready to attend to any propoſals of the court of Denmark for reſtoring the former amity and friendſhip which had for ſo many years ſubſiſted between the two courts.

(Signed) H. Parker.

His excellency the governor of Cronberg-caſtle.

Elephant, off Copenhagen, April 3.

Sir,

In obedience to your directions to report the proceedings of the

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ſquadron named in the margin*, which you did me the honour to place under my command, I beg leave to inform you, that having, by the aſſiſtance of that able officer captain Riou, and the unremitting exertions of captain Briſbane, and the maſters of the Amazon and Cruiſer in particular, buoyed the channel of the Outer Deep, and the poſition of the Middle Ground, the ſquadron paſſed in ſafety, and anchored off Draco the evening of the firſt; and that yeſterday morning I made the ſignal for the ſquadron to weigh, and to engage the Daniſh line, conſiſting of ſix ſail of the line, eleven floating batteries, mounting from twenty-ſix 24-pounders to eighteen 18-pounders, and one bomb-ſhip, beſides ſchooner gun-veſſels.

Theſe were ſupported by the Crown iſlands, mounting 88 cannon, and four ſail of the line moored in the harbour's mouth, and ſome batteries on the iſland of Amak.

The bomb-ſhip and ſchooner gun-veſſels made their eſcape; the other ſeventeen ſail are ſunk, burnt, or taken, being the whole of the Daniſh line to the ſouthward of the Crown iſlands, after a battle of four hours.

From the very intricate navigation, the Bellona and Ruſſell unfortunately grounded, but although not in the ſituation aſſigned them, yet ſo placed as to be of great ſervice. The Agamemnon could not weather the ſhoal of the Middle, and was obliged to anchor; but not the ſmalleſt blame can be attached to captain Fancourt; it was an event to which all the ſhips were liable. Theſe accidents prevented the extenſion of our line by the three ſhips before mentioned, who would, I am confident, have ſilenced the Crown iſlands, the two outer ſhips in the harbour's mouth, and prevented the heavy loſs in the Defiance and Monarch, and which unhappily threw the gallant and good captain Riou (to whom I had given the command of the frigates and ſloops named in the margin†, to aſſiſt in the attack of the ſhips at the harbour's mouth) under a very heavy fire: the conſequence has been the death of captain Riou, and many brave officers and men in the frigates and ſloops.

The bombs were directed and took their ſtations abreaſt of the Elephant, and threw ſome ſhells into the arſenal.

Captain Roſe, who volunteered his ſervices to direct the gun-brigs, did every thing that was poſſible to get them forward, but the current was too ſtrong for them to be of ſervice during the action; but not the leſs merit is due to captain Roſe, and, I believe, all the officers and crews of the gun-brigs, for their exertions.

The boats of thoſe ſhips of the fleet, who were not ordered on the attack, afforded us every aſſiſtance; and the officers and men who were in them merit my warmeſt approbation.

The Deſirée took her ſtation in raking the ſouthernmoſt Daniſh ſhip

* Elephant, Defiance, Monarch, Bellona, Edgar, Ruſſell, Ganges, Glatton, Iſis, Agamemnon, Polyphemus, Ardent, Amazon, Deſirée, Blanche, Alcmene; ſloops Dart, Arrow, Cruiſer, and Harpy; fire-ſhips Zephyr and Otter; bombs Diſcovery, Sulphur, Hecla, Explosion, Zebra, Terror, and Volcano.

† Blanche, Alcmene, Dart, Arrow, Zephyr, and Otter.

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of the line, and performed the greatest service.

The action began at five minutes past ten. The van, led by captain George Murray of the Edgar, who set a noble example of intrepidity, which was as well followed up by every captain, officer, and man in the squadron.

It is my duty to state to you the high and distinguished merit and gallantry of rear-admiral Graves.

To captain Foley, who permitted me the honour of hoisting my flag in the Elephant, I feel under the greatest obligations; his advice was necessary on many and important occasions during the battle.

I beg leave to express how much I feel indebted to every captain, officer, and man, for their zeal and distinguished bravery on this occasion. The honourable colonel Stewart did me the favour to be on board the Elephant; and himself, with every officer and soldier under his orders, shared with pleasure in the toils and dangers of the day.

The loss in such a battle has naturally been very heavy. Amongst many other brave officers and men whom we killed, I have with sorrow to place the name of captain Mosse, of the Monarch, who has left a wife and six children to lament his loss; and among the wounded, that of captain sir Thomas B. Thompson, of the Bellona.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Nelson and Bronte.

London Gazette, April 21, 1801.

Extract of a Letter from Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Commander in-Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels employed on a particular Service, to Evan Nepean, Esq., Secretary of the Admiralty; dated on Board his Majesty's Ship London, in Copenhagen Road, the 9th of April.

Sir,

The honourable lieutenant-colonel Stewart having volunteered his services by being the bearer of these dispatches, I have accepted thereof, on a belief that it will be more expeditious than by sea.

I have the pleasure to transmit an armistice concluded between the court of Denmark and myself.

I mean, as soon as the disabled ships are refitted, and the worst of the wounded moved into the Holstein Danish ship of the line, which I have commissioned as an hospital ship, to proceed over the Grounds into the Baltic, to put into execution the remaining part of my instructions.

The Isis and Monarch being found in so bad a state from the late action, as to render it necessary to send them to England, to have their damages repaired; I shall send them home for that purpose with the Holstein hospital ship, which has the wounded and sick on board.

The Danish government on the one hand, and admiral sir Hyde Parker, knight, commander-in-chief of his Britannic majesty's naval forces in the Road of Copenhagen, on the other, being, from motives of humanity, equally anxious to put a stop to the farther effusion of blood, and to save the city of Copenhagen from the disastrous consequences which may attend a farther prosecution of hostilities against that city, have mutually agreed upon a military armistice or suspension of arms.

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His Danish majesty having for that purpose appointed major-general Ernest Frederick Walterstoff, chamberlain to his Danish majesty, and colonel of a regiment, and adjutant-general Hans Lindholm, captain in his Danish majesty's navy, his commissioners for agreeing about the terms of the said armistice; and admiral sir Hyde Parker, knight, having, with the same view, duly authorized the right hon. Horatio lord Nelson, of the Nile, knight of the most honourable order of the Bath, duke of Bronte, in Sicily, knight of the grand cross of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit, and of the imperial order of the Crescent, vice-admiral in the fleet of his Britannic majesty, and the honourable William Stewart, lieutenant-colonel in his Britannic majesty's service, and commanding a detachment of his Britannic majesty's forces embarked; these said commissioners have met this day, and having exchanged their respective powers, have agreed upon the following terms:

Art. I. From the moment of the signature of this armistice, all hostilities shall immediately cease between the fleet under the command of admiral sir Hyde Parker, and the city of Copenhagen, and all the armed ships and vessels of his Danish majesty in the road or harbour of that city; as likewise between the different islands and provinces of Denmark, Jutland included.

Art. II. The armed ships and vessels belonging to his Danish majesty shall remain in their present actual situation as to armament, equipment, and hostile position; and the treaty commonly understood as the treaty of armed neutrality shall, as far as relates to the co-

operation of Denmark, be suspended while the armistice remains in force.

On the other side, the armed ships and vessels under the command of admiral sir Hyde Parker, shall in no manner whatsoever molest the city of Copenhagen, or his Danish majesty's armed ships and vessels on the coasts of the different islands and provinces of Denmark, Jutland included; and in order to avoid every thing which might otherwise create uneasiness or jealousy, sir Hyde Parker shall not suffer any of the ships or vessels under his command, to approach within gun-shot of the armed ships or fort of his Danish majesty in the road of Copenhagen. This restriction shall not, however, extend to vessels necessarily passing or repassing through the Casper or King's channel.

Art. III. This armistice is to protect the city of Copenhagen, as also the coasts of Denmark, of Jutland, and islands included, against the attack of any other naval force which his Britannic majesty may now or hereafter, during its remaining in force, have in these seas.

Art. IV. The fleet of admiral sir Hyde Parker shall be permitted to provide itself at Copenhagen, and along the coasts of the different islands and provinces of Denmark, and Jutland included, with every thing which it may require for the health and comfort of its crews.

Art. V. Admiral sir Hyde Parker shall send on shore all such subjects of his Danish majesty as are now on board the British fleet under his command, the Danish government engaging to give an acknowledgement for them, as also for all such wounded as were permitted to be landed after the action of the 2d instant,

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instant, in order that they may be accounted for in favour of Great Britain, in the unfortunate event of the renewal of hostilities.

Art. VI. The coasting trade carried on by Denmark, along all such parts of her coast as are included in the operation of this armistice, shall be unmolested by any British ships or vessels whatever, and instructions given accordingly by admiral sir Hyde Parker.

Art. VII. This armistice is to continue uninterrupted by the contracting parties for the space of fourteen weeks from the signature hereof, at the expiration of which time, it shall be in the power of either of the said parties to declare a cessation of the same, and to recommence hostilities upon giving fourteen days previous notice.

The conditions of this armistice are upon all occasions to be explained in the most liberal and loyal manner, so as to remove all ground for future disputes, and facilitate the means of bringing about the restoration of harmony and good understanding between the two kingdoms.

In faith whereof, we, the undersigned commissioners, in virtue of our full powers, have signed the present armistice, and have affixed to it the seal of our arms.

Done on board his Britannic majesty's ship the London, in Copenhagen Roads, April the 9th, 1801.

(Signed) (L. S.) Nelson and Bronte.
(L. S.) William Stewart.
(L. S.) Ernest Frederick Walterstorff.
(L. S.) Hans Lindholm.

In pursuance of my above mentioned authority, I ratify this document with my hand.

(L. S.) Frederick.

Ratified by me,

(L. S.) Hyde Parker,
Admiral and commander-in-chief of his Britannic majesty's fleet.

London Gazette Extraordinary, May 3, 1801.

Copy of a Letter from Sir Ralph Abercromby to the Earl of Elgin; dated camp before Alexandria, the 16th of March.

My lord,

On the 1st instant the fleet arrived in sight of Alexandria; on the 2d it anchored in Aboukir bay; the weather did not permit any debarkation before the 8th; on that day it was happily effected under the most trying circumstances. The boats had near a mile to row, and were for some time under the fire of fifteen pieces of artillery, and the musketry of 2500 men; still the intrepidity of the troops overcame every difficulty. We took eight pieces of cannon.

On the 9th, the remainder of the army was landed. On the 12th, we marched forwards to within two leagues of Alexandria, and one league of the enemy, who were advantageously posted on a ridge, with their right to the canal of Alexandria, and their left to the sea. On the 13th we moved forward to attack the enemy, and to turn their left. They did not, however, wait, but came down and attacked us. The action was warm; but the enemy were every where forced under the walls of Alexandria. Our loss is considerable. Although co-

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lonel Erskine is wounded, but in the wing well. He has lost a leg. His regiments gained great credit, but suffered severely. No officer of rank is killed or dangerously wounded. Excuse this scrawl, written on my knee.

R. Abercromby.

London Gazette, May 9, 1801.

Letter from General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K.B. Commander-in-Chief of his Majesty's Troops serving in the Mediterranean, to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas.

Camp before Alexandria, March 16.

Sir,

Although it was not originally my intention to have commenced the operations of the British army in Egypt on the side of Alexandria, yet circumstances arose which induced me to change my opinion. We were much longer delayed on the coast of Asia Minor, than we had at first any reason to apprehend; and we were ultimately obliged to sail from Marmarice in a very imperfect state of preparation. I am fully sensible of the exertions of his majesty's ambassador at the Ottoman Porte, as well as of the quarter-master-general, and the other officers who were sent forward to provide for the necessities of the army. Our delays originated from other causes. For a considerable time previous to our sailing the weather was extremely boisterous, and the wind contrary. The moment that it became practicable to sail with so large a fleet, lord Keith put to sea; we left Marmarice on the 22d of February, and came in sight of Alexandria on the 1st of March, a few hours before day-light.

On the 2d the fleet anchored in Aboukir bay. Until the 7th the surf ran high, and no disembarkation could be effected; on that day every arrangement was completed, and on the 8th, the troops forming the first division, consisting of the reserve under the command of major-general Moore, the brigade of guards, under the honourable major-general Ludlow, and part of the first brigade, under the command of major-general Coote, got into the boats early in the morning: they had, in general, from five to six miles to row, and did not arrive at the point of landing till ten o'clock. The front of disembarkation was narrow, and a hill which commanded the whole seemed almost inaccessible. The enemy were fully aware of our intention, were in force, and had every advantage on their side. The troops, however, notwithstanding their being exposed to a very severe cannonade, and under the fire of grape-shot, made good their landing, ascended the hill with an intrepidity scarcely to be paralleled, and forced the enemy to retire, leaving behind them several pieces of artillery and a number of horses.

The troops that attended the hill were the 23d regiment, and the four flank companies of the 40th, under the command of colonel Spencer, whose coolness and good conduct major-general Moore has mentioned to me in the highest terms of approbation. It is impossible to pass over the good order in which the 28th and the 42d regiments landed, under the command of brigadier-general Oakes, who was attached to the reserve under major-general Moore

Mouth; and the troops thus landed left not a moment unimproved in any little disorder which became unavoidable in a landing under such circumstances. The disembarkation of the army continued on that and the following day.

The troops which landed on the 8th, advanced three miles the same day; and on the 12th the whole army moved forward, and came within sight of the enemy, who was posted on an advantageous ridge, with his right to the canal of Alexandria, and his left towards the sea.

It was determined to attack them on the morning of the 13th; and in consequence the army marched in two lines by the left, with an intention to turn their right flank.

The troops had not been long in motion before the enemy descended from the heights on which they were formed, and attacked the leading brigades of both lines, which were commanded by major-general Cradock, and major-general the earl of Cavan.

The 90th regiment formed the advanced guard of the front line, and the 92d that of the second; both battalions suffered considerably, and behaved in such a manner as to merit the praise both of courage and discipline. Major-general Cradock immediately formed his brigade to meet the attack made by the enemy; and the troops changed their position with a quickness and precision which did them the greatest honour. The remainder of the army followed so good an example, and were immediately in a situation not only to face, but to repel the enemy. The reserve, under the command of major-general Moore, which was on the right, on the change of the position of the army, moved on in column, and covered the right flank. The army continued to advance, pushing the enemy with the greatest vigour, and ultimately forced them to put themselves under the protection of the fortified heights which form the principal defence of Alexandria.

It was intended to have attacked them in their last position; for which purpose the reserve, under the command of major-general Moore, which had remained in column during the whole of the day, was brought forward, and the second line, under the command of major-general Hutchinson, marched to the left across a part of the lake Mariotis, with a view to attack the enemy on both flanks; but on reconnoitring their position, and not being prepared to occupy it after it should be carried, prudence required that the troops who had behaved so bravely, and who were still willing to attempt any thing, however arduous, should not be exposed to a certain loss, when the extent of the advantage could not be ascertained. They were therefore withdrawn, and now occupy a position with their right to the sea, and their left to the canal of Alexandria and lake Mariotis, about a league from the town of Alexandria.

I have the greatest satisfaction in saying, that the conduct of the British and foreign troops under my command is deserving of the highest praise; their courage and their discipline have been equally conspicuous.

To all the general officers I am indebted for their zeal and intelligence.

From

From the honourable brigadier-general Hope, adjutant-general, and lieutenant-colonel Anstruther, quarter-master-general, I have received every teſtimony of zeal, and the moſt able aſſiſtance in the operations of the army; and to the other officers of the general ſtaff I feel obligations.

On the 8th the arrangements made by lord Keith were ſuch as to enable us to land at once a body of 6000 men.

The honourable capt. Coehrane, and thoſe other captains and officers of the royal navy who were intruſted with the diſembarkation, not only of the troops, but of the artillery, ammunition, proviſions, and ſtores of all kinds, have exerted themſelves in ſuch a manner as to claim the warmeſt acknowledgements of the whole army.

Sir Sidney Smith, and the other captains and officers of the navy under his command who landed with the army, have been indefatigable in their exertions in forwarding the ſervice on which they are employed.

The enemy have left a ſmall garriſon in Aboukir caſtle: it has been neceſſary to bring up a few pieces of heavy artillery, and there is reaſon to believe that it will ſpeedily ſurrender.

Majors M'Kerras and Fletcher, of the royal engineers, who went down in the Penelope frigate to ſurvey the coaſt of Egypt, a ſhort time before we ſailed from Marmarice, were unfortunately ſurpriſed in a ſmall boat in Aboukir bay; the former was killed, the latter taken priſoner.

Our communication with the fleet is at preſent kept up by means of the lake of Aboukir. We have been fortunate enough to find water ſufficient for the ſupply of the army; and we begin to derive ſome ſupplies from the country.

I have the honour to enclose herewith returns of the killed and wounded in the actions of the 8th and 13th inſtant, together with a return of the artillery taken from the enemy on thoſe days.

(Signed) Ra. Abercromby.

P. S. I have had no means of aſcertaining the loſs of the enemy, but it muſt have been conſiderable.

Total Return of killed, wounded, and miſſing, of the Army under the Command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. — Aboukir, March 8.

4 officers, 4 ſergeants, 94 rank and file, killed; 26 officers, 34 ſergeants, 5 drummers, 450 rank and file, wounded; 1 officer, 1 ſergeant, 1 drummer, 32 rank and file, miſſing.

Total Return of the killed, wounded, and miſſing, of the Army under the Command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. near Alexandria, March 13.

6 officers, 6 ſergeants, 1 drummer, 149 rank and file, 21 horſes killed; 66 officers, 1 quarter-maſter, 61 ſergeants, 7 drummers, 946 rank and file, 5 horſes, wounded; 1 rank and file, miſſing.

[A London Gazette Extraordinary, publiſhed May 15, 1801, announced the capitulation of the fort of Aboukir, and the articles thereof, as contained in a diſpatch from Sir Ralph Abercromby, dated 19th March.]

London

London Gazette Extraordinary, May 15, 1801.

Letter from General Hutchinson to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas.

Head-quarters, Camp, 4 Miles from Alexandria, April 5th.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you, that, after the affair of the 13th of March, the army took a position about four miles from Alexandria, having a sandy plain in their front, the sea on their right, and the canal of Alexandria (at present dry) and the lake of Aboukir on their left. In this position we remained without any material occurrence taking place till the 21st of March, when the enemy attacked us with nearly the whole of their collected force, amounting probably to 11 or 12,000 men. Of fourteen demi-brigades of infantry, which the French have in this country, twelve appear to have been engaged, and all their cavalry, with the exception of one regiment.

The enemy made the following disposition of their army:

General Lanusse was on their left, with four demi-brigades of infantry, and a considerable body of cavalry, commanded by general Roize; generals Friant and Rampon were in the centre, with five demi-brigades; general Regnier on the right, with two demi-brigades and two regiments of cavalry; general d'Estaing commanded the advanced guard, consisting of one demi-brigade, some light troops, and a detachment of cavalry.

The action commenced about an hour before day-light, by a false attack on our left, which was under major-general Craddock's command, where they were soon repulsed. The most vigorous efforts of the enemy were however directed against our right, which they used every possible exertion to turn. The attack on that point was begun with great impetuosity by the French infantry, sustained by a strong body of cavalry, who charged in column. They were received by our troops with equal ardour, and the utmost steadiness and discipline. The contest was unusually obstinate: the enemy were twice repulsed, and their cavalry were repeatedly mixed with our infantry. They at length retired, leaving a prodigious number of dead and wounded on the field.

While this was passing on the right, they attempted to penetrate our centre with a column of infantry, who were also repulsed, and obliged to retreat with loss. The French, during the whole of the action, refused their right. They pushed forward, however, a corps of light troops, supported by a body of infantry and cavalry to keep our left in check, which certainly was, at that time, the weakest part of our line.

We have taken about 200 prisoners (not wounded); but it was impossible to pursue our victory on account of our inferiority in cavalry, and because the French had lined the opposite hills with cannon, under which they retired. We also have suffered considerably. Few more severe actions have ever been fought, considering the numbers engaged on both sides. We have sustained an irreparable loss in the person of our never sufficiently to be lamented commander-in-chief, sir Ralph Abercromby, who was mortally wounded in the action, and died on the 28th of March. I believe

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believe he was wounded early, but he concealed his ſituation from thoſe about him, and continued in the field, giving his orders with that coolneſs and perſpicuity which had ever marked his character, till long after the action was over, when he fainted through weakneſs and loſs of blood. Were it permitted for a ſoldier to regret any one who has fallen in the ſervice of his country, I might be excuſed for lamenting him more than any other perſon; but it is ſome conſolation to thoſe who tenderly loved him, that, as his life was honourable, ſo was his death glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country, will be ſacred to every Britiſh ſoldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful poſterity.

It is impoſſible for me to do juſtice to the zeal of the officers and to the gallantry of the ſoldiers of this army.

The reſerve, againſt whom the principal attack of the enemy was directed, conducted themſelves with unexampled ſpirit. They reſiſted the impetuoſity of the French infantry, and repulſed ſeveral charges of cavalry. Major-general Moore was wounded at their head, though not dangerouſly. I regret, however, the temporary abſence from the army of this highly valuable and meritorious officer, whoſe counſel and co-operation would be ſo highly neceſſary to me at this moment. Brigadier-general Oakes was wounded nearly at the ſame time, and the army has been deprived of the ſervice of an excellent officer. The 28th and 42d regiments acted in the moſt diſtinguiſhed and brilliant manner. Colonel Paget, an officer of great promiſe, was wounded at the head of the former regiment; he has ſince, though not quite recovered, returned to his duty.

Brigadier-general Stuart and the foreign brigade ſupported the reſerve with much promptneſs and ſpirit; indeed it is but juſtice to this corps to ſay, that they have on all occaſions endeavoured to emulate the zeal and ſpirit exhibited by the Britiſh troops, and have perfectly ſucceeded. Major-general Ludlow deſerves much approbation for his conduct when the centre of the army was attacked; under his guidance the guards conducted themſelves in the moſt cool, intrepid, and ſoldier-like manner; they received very effectual ſupport by a movement of the right of general Coote's brigade. Brigadier-general Hope was wounded in the hand; the army has been deprived of the ſervice of a moſt active, zealous, and judicious officer.

The loſs of the enemy has been great; it is calculated at upwards of 3000 killed, wounded, and taken priſoners. General Roize, who commanded the cavalry, which ſuffered conſiderably, was killed in the field. Generals Lanuſſe and Bodet are ſince dead of their wounds. I have been informed that ſeveral other general officers, whoſe names I do not know, have been either killed or wounded.

I cannot conclude this letter without ſolemnly aſſuring you that, in the arduous conteſt in which we are at preſent engaged, his majeſty's troops in Egypt have faithfully diſcharged their duty to their country, and nobly upheld the fame of the Britiſh name and nation.

I have the honour to be

J. H. Hutchiſſon.

Herewith

Herewith I have the honour to enclose a list of the killed and wounded on the 21st of March.

Total Return of the killed, wounded, and missing, of the Army under the Command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. near Alexandria, 21st March.

10 officers, 9 sergeants, 224 rank and file, 2 horses, killed; 60 officers, 48 sergeants, 3 drummers, 1062 rank and file, 3 horses, wounded; 3 officers, 1 sergeant, 28 rank and file, missing.

London Gazette Extraordinary, June 5, 1801.

Copy of a Letter from Lieutenant-General Sir John Hely Hutchinson, K. B. to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas; dated Camp before Alexandria, 20th April.

Sir,

It is with great pleasure that I am to inform you of the success of a corps of Turks and British, under the command of Colonel Spencer. They were ordered from hence about ten days ago, for the purpose of forcing the enemy from the town and castle of Rosetta, which commands the navigation of the Nile. This operation has perfectly succeeded. We are now masters of the western branch of that river, and of course have opened a communication with the Delta, from which we shall derive all necessary supplies, as the French have scarcely any troops there; and none capable of making a serious resistance.

The enemy had about 800 men at Rosetta when they were attacked. They made but a feeble effort to sustain themselves, and retired to the right bank of the Nile, leaving a few men killed and prisoners. They left a garrison in the fort, against which our batteries opened on the 16th, and it surrendered on the 19th instant. The conditions are the same as were granted to the castle of Aboukir.

I have many obligations to colonel Spencer for the zeal, activity, and military talents which he has displayed in the conduct of this important service; and I beg leave to recommend him as a deserving and most excellent officer.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. H. Hutchinson,
Major-general.

Right hon. Henry Dundas,
&c. &c. &c.

London Gazette Extraordinary, July 15, 1801.

Letter from the Earl of Elgin to the Right Honourable Lord Hawkesbury.

Constantinople, June 5.

My lord,

An opportunity for writing to Europe having occurred, I avail myself of it to mention to your lordship, some farther details from Egypt, which have just reached me in a private letter from lord Keith, dated 22d May.

The enemy, after quitting Rahmania, made a wonderful march, and reached Cairo on the 12th of May. It is supposed they then advanced to attack the vizier at Belbeis.

General Hutchinson, who was in his progress from Rahmania towards Cairo, had, by the aid of the Arabs, taken a convoy of 500 camels, with their escort of 600 men. It was destined for Alexandria, which is

understood

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understood to be in great want of some articles of provisions and of water. General Hutchinson, in his march up the country, observes, that the inhabitants are in the highest degree incensed against the French, putting to death every one that falls into their hands.

Admiral Blankett, in his letters to lord Keith of the 6th, acquaints him with the arrival of the reinforcements from India, under the command of general Baird, colonel Wellesley, colonel Murray, &c.

After the surrendering of Damietta, a corps of 700 men embarked on the lake Burlos for France, and were taken by lord Keith.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Elgin.

Right hon. lord Hawkesbury, &c.

London Gazette Extraordinary, July 21, 1801.

Extract from a Letter of Major Holloway, to the Earl of Elgin.

Imperial Ottoman Camp of the Grand Vizier, Benathasser, May 20.

My lord,

I had the honour of addressing your lordship on the 2d of May, from Salanich, which place his highness the grand vizier left the 7th, and the following day arrived at Belbeis, where the advanced corps of his army had been encamped for some time before.

On the 15th inst. his highness received intelligence that the enemy had early that morning marched a considerable force from Cairo, on the road towards Belbeis, where his highness was then encamped. In the evening a farther confirmation of this intelligence was brought, when the enemy was in full march. The vizier, after dark, ordered Tahir Pacha, with 3000 cavalry and three light field-pieces to advance to meet them; and if a favourable opportunity offered during the obscurity of the night, to attack, if not to impede their progress as much as possible. About ten o'clock at night they met, three leagues from camp, when each halted, and lay on their arms during the night, and until eight o'clock in the morning, at which time Tahir Pacha commenced an attack. He was soon after reinforced by 1500 cavalry. It was now found the enemy had come forward with about 14 pieces of artillery, 600 cavalry, and 4000 infantry. His highness, therefore, ordered Mehemmed Pacha to move forward with 5000 men, cavalry, and Albanian infantry, and nine light field-pieces; the enemy had eight-pounders in the field. His highness afterwards advanced himself, and took the command, which was attended with the happiest effect.

The enemy moved into a wood of date-trees, where they were attacked by the cavalry and infantry with great spirit for three hours, when the enemy retired from the wood, taking position on the plain, their left to the wood, and forming a hollow square on the right. The Albanian infantry advanced to the edge of the wood, and in this situation galled them considerably; and upon the Turkish cavalry threatening their right, they changed position, and attempted to gain the heights, in which they were prevented by a rapid movement of cavalry, who gained the summit. In this manœuvre they were annoyed by two guns, which were

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were advanced by his highneſs on the occaſion. At this time, the French commenced a decided retreat, and were driven beyond El-Hanka, a diſtance not leſs than ſeven miles from the place of the firſt operations. The grand vizier, who had commanded his troops with great gallantry and prompt deciſion, then gave orders for them not to purſue any farther. The loſs on either ſide, for the time they were engaged, is ſmall. The Turks had about thirty killed and eighty wounded. The French, I think, had about fifty killed and one priſoner; the number of their wounded could not be aſcertained, as they took them off the field.

The Turkiſh force engaged on this occaſion did not at any time exceed 9000.

Whilſt I was congratulating his highneſs in the field of battle on the ſucceſs of the day, we received additional ſatisfaction by the arrival of the intelligence of the capture of fort Leſbie, at Damietta, and two ſmaller forts depending on it, by a detachment from the vizier's army. I had the honour of acquainting your lordſhip, in my letter of the 2d May, that his highneſs intended ſending a force againſt Damietta. This intention he carried into effect on the 6th, by ordering Ibrahim Pacha, with 2500 men, and five pieces of artillery, to march immediately for that purpoſe; and it appears by Ibrahim Pacha's report to the vizier, that every arrangement had been made for the attack of fort Leſbie on the morning of the 14th inſtant, when it was diſcovered that the fort was evacuated, and the garriſon had retired.

I beg leave to inform your lordſhip, that during the action of the 16th inſtant, myſelf and major Hope of the royal artillery were in the field with the grand vizier, captain Lacy of the royal engineers with Mehemmed Pacha, and captain Leake of the royal artillery with Tahir Pacha, to render every aſſiſtance in our power.

The combined forces under major-general Hutchinſon and the capitan pacha, are about five hours diſtance in the Delta, but are expected here in a day or two. I received a letter from the general this morning, who informs me he has taken a convoy of 550 camels, and 600 French priſoners.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) Charles Holloway,
Major-commandant, &c.

A Diſpatch from Lieutenant-General Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. to the Right Hon. Lord Hobart.

Head-quarters, Camp near Alkam, June 1.

My lord,

I have the honour to inform your lordſhip, that the French abandoned the poſition of El-Aſt on the 7th of May, which we occupied the ſame evening, and on the 9th we advanced to Rahmanich, where the French were poſted with upwards of 3000 infantry and 800 cavalry. We at firſt imagined that they might have endeavoured to have maintained that poſition, but our corps on the eaſtern bank of the Nile having got into their rear, took the fort of Rahmanich in reverſe, which probably induced the enemy to retire in the night between the 9th and 10th, leaving a garriſon in the fort, which ſurrendered in the morning, amounting to 110 men, commanded

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manded by a chef-de-brigade; we also took the same day about fifty cavalry and three officers coming from Alexandria.

As the enemy retired towards Cairo, it became necessary to follow them, in order to cover the army of the grand vizier, and to secure a junction with the expected reinforcement from India.

Nothing happened of any importance until the 14th, when we fell in with a valuable convoy of germs on the Nile. They had come from Cairo down the canal of Menouff, which joins the Damietta and Rosetta branches of the river. From this circumstance they knew nothing of the retreat of general la Grange from Rahmanich. About 150 prisoners fell into our hands, and several heavy guns, some of them intended for the defence of Alexandria. The convoy in itself was very valuable, and is a great loss to the enemy. We found on board all kinds of clothing, wine, spirits, &c. and about five thousand pounds in money.

On the 17th, when encamped at Alkam, we were informed by the Arabs that a considerable body of French, coming from Alexandria, were advancing towards the Nile, near the spot where the boats of the capitan pacha then were. The cavalry were immediately ordered out, with two pieces of cannon, under the command of brigadier-general Doyle, supported by his brigade of infantry. Colonel Cavalier, who commanded the French convoy, as soon as he perceived the boats of the capitan pacha, suspected that our army must be near, and therefore retired into the Desert, where we followed him. The cavalry came up with him after a march of about three hours. A flag of truce was sent in to them, by major Wilson of the Hompesch, requiring them to surrender, on condition that their private property should be respected, and that they should be sent to France by the first convenient opportunity. With these terms they complied, and laid down their arms. They amounted, in all, to about 600 men, infantry, cavalry, and artillery, together with a considerable portion of the dromedary corps, one 4-pounder, and 550 camels. The prisoners taken are all Frenchmen, and of the best troops they had in Egypt.

On the 17th of May the enemy retired from the fort of Lisbet, on the Damietta branch, and formed a junction with about 200 men which they had at Burlos; this fort they also evacuated, and embarked in five small vessels, four of which have been taken and carried into Aboukir bay; the fifth endeavoured to escape towards Cyprus, but a Turkish frigate was left in chase of her, so that it is more than probable she has shared the same fate.

The garrisons of the two forts consisted of about 700 men; so that in all we have taken, from the 9th to the 20th, near 1600 men, which makes a considerable diminution of the enemy's force in this country.

The French made a most extraordinary rapid march from Rahmanich to Gizah, where they arrived on the 13th, and immediately crossed the river to Boulac.

On the 15th, they marched to attack the grand vizier's army. His highness anticipated their intention, and made a forward movement with a considerable body of cavalry on the night between the 15th and 16th. The armies remained for some

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have longer in presence of each other, when the Ottoman troops attacked at about eight o'clock in the morning, and after an action of seven hours the French retired, having left between 3 and 400 men killed and wounded. They were nearly the same people who had retreated from Rahmanieh, and were about 4000 or 4500 men.

I congratulate your lordship upon the event of this very important action; I have also much pleasure in informing you, that the Mamalukes, under the orders of Osman Bey (successor of Murad Bey), have joined us, to the amount of about 1500 cavalry, inferior, certainly, to none in the world. I am sanguine enough to hope that the most serious good effects will arise from this junction, as they have a most intimate knowledge of the country, and the greatest influence amongst the inhabitants.

I enclose you the capitulation of the fort of Rahmanieh, and also a return of the killed and wounded on the 9th of May; which I rejoice has been so very inconsiderable.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. Hely Hutchinson.

The right hon.
lord Hobart.

Fort of Rahmanieh, May 10.

The garrison of the fort of Rahmanieh will surrender to the Ottoman and British forces on the following conditions:

I. The officers shall wear their swords and retain their effects. They, as well as the soldiers, shall be prisoners of war.—Granted.

II. The garrison shall be sent back to France, and shall not serve against the king of England, nor against his allies, until exchanged conformably to the cartel between the two nations.—Granted.

III. The wounded are placed under the protection of British humanity.

(Signed) La Croix, chef-de-brigade.
Capitan Pacha.
J. Hely Hutchinson, major-general, commander in chief.
James Stevenson, captain royal navy.

London Gazette Extraordinary, August 25, 1801.

Extract of a Dispatch from the Earl of Elgin to Lord Hawkesbury; dated Constantinople, July 18.

I have the satisfaction of acquainting your lordship, that the enclosed letters to lord Hobart contain the intelligence of the surrender of Grand Cairo to the combined forces under general Hutchinson, the vizier, and the capitan pacha.

Head-quarters, Camp before Gizeh, 21st June.

My lord,

I have nothing new or of very essential import to communicate, but I avail myself of the opportunity of a messenger going to Constantinople to inform you that we are now encamped near Gizeh, which is on the opposite side of the river to Cairo. We mean to erect batteries in the course of twenty-four hours: it cannot hold out long, as it is a very weak place; but it covers a bridge of communication which the French have over the Nile, and it is therefore essential to us to have it in our possession. This

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operation cannot laſt above four or five days at moſt. I then mean to croſs the river and join the army of the grand vizier, who is at preſent encamped very near Cairo: we ſhall then beſiege the place, which is garriſoned by 4 or 5000 French, but their works are very extended, and would require a much greater number of men to defend them. Great delays have been occaſioned in this operation from the low ſtate of the river, and from the bar of the Nile at Roſetta, which is frequently impaſſable for ten days together, ſo that our march has been much retarded. The difficulty of procuring proviſions for the army, and the obſtacles which we encountered in bringing the heavy artillery up the river (which has not yet been entirely accompliſhed), have been very great. However, we have now a ſufficiency to begin the ſiege.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. H. Hutchinſon.

To the right honourable
lord Hobart.

Head-quarters, Camp before Gizeh, 29th June.

My lord,

The combined armies advanced on both ſides of the river on the 21ſt inſtant. The Britiſh troops, and thoſe of his highneſs the capitan pacha, inveſted Gizeh on the left bank of the Nile, whilſt the army of his highneſs the grand vizier moved forward, and took a poſition nearly within cannon-ſhot of Cairo. On the 22d, in the morning, the enemy ſent out a flag of truce, and informed me that they wiſhed to treat for the evacuation of Cairo, and the forts thereunto belonging, upon certain conditions. After a negotiation of ſeveral days, which was conducted by brigadier-general Hope with much judgement and ability, they agreed to ſurrender the town and forts on the conditions which I have the honour to encloſe.

We took poſſeſſion of the gate of Gizeh at five o'clock yeſterday evening, and alſo of the fort Sulkoſki on the Cairo ſide of the river: hoſtages have been mutually exchanged, and the final evacuation will take place in about ten days.

I ſhould ſuppoſe that there are near 6000 troops of all kinds in the town; but I ſpeak without a perfect knowledge on the ſubject, as I have not yet received any returns.

This has been a long and arduous ſervice: the troops, from the great heat of the weather, the difficulty of the navigation of the river, and the entire want of roads in the country, have ſuffered a conſiderable degree of fatigue, but both men and officers have ſubmitted to it with the greateſt patience, and have manifeſted a zeal for the honour of his majeſty's arms that is above all panegyric; the conduct of the ſoldiers has been orderly and exemplary, and a diſcipline has been preſerved which would have done honour to any troops.

I am extremely obliged to lieutenant-colonel Anſtruther, quarter-maſter-general, for the great zeal and ability which he has ſhewn, under very difficult circumſtances, in forwarding the public ſervice. From generals Cradock and Doyle, who were the general officers employed immediately under my orders, I have derived the greateſt aſſiſtance, and I beg leave to recommend them as highly deſerving of his majeſty's favour.

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The exertions of captain Stevenson of the navy have been extremely laborious and conſtant during this long march; they have done every thing that was poſſible to forward our ſupplies; and indeed without their powerful aid, it would have been impoſſible to have proceeded. Your lordſhip will recollect that the river is extremely low at this ſeaſon of the year, the mouth of the Nile impaſſable for days together, and the diſtance from Roſetta to Cairo between 160 and 170 miles. Captain Stevenſon has been ably ſupported by captains Morriſon, Curry, and Hillyar, who were employed under him. The ſervice in which they have been engaged has not been a brilliant one, but I hope it will be recollected that it has been moſt uſeful, and has required conſtant vigilance and attention; it has laſted now for many weeks; the labour has been exceſſive, and the fatigue greater than I can expreſs.

This diſpatch will be delivered to you by my aid-de-camp, major Montréſor, who has been in the moſt intimate habits of confidence with me ſince my arrival in Egypt, and will be able to give your lordſhip a moſt perfect account of the ſituation of affairs in this country. I beg leave to recommend him to your lordſhip's protection, as an officer of merit, and highly deſerving of his majeſty's favour.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. Hely Hutchinſon,
major-general.

To the right honourable
lord Hobart, &c. &c.

[Here follows the convention, for which ſee the State Papers of this volume.]

London Gazette Extraordinary, October 22, 1801.

A Diſpatch, of which the following is a Copy, was this Day received at the Office of the Right Honourable Lord Hobart, one of his Majeſty's principal Secretaries of State.

Head-quarters, Camp before Alexandria, Sept. 5.

My lord,

I have now the ſatisfaction to inform your lordſhip, that the forts and town of Alexandria have ſurrendered to his majeſty's troops, who, on the 2d inſtant, took poſſeſſion of the intrenched camp, the heights above Pompey's Pillar, the Redoubt de Bain, and the Fort Triangulaire. By the capitulation, the garriſon are to be embarked for France in the courſe of ten days, provided the ſhipping is in a ſtate of preparation to receive them.

The operations againſt the enemy's works commenced on the 17th of Auguſt.

Major-general Coote embarked with a ſtrong corps on the inundation, in the night between the 16th and 17th of Auguſt. He effected his landing to the weſtward of Alexandria with little or no oppoſition, and immediately inveſted the ſtrong caſtle of Marabout, ſituated at the entrance of the weſtern harbour of Alexandria.

On the eaſt ſide of the town two attacks were made to get poſſeſſion of ſome heights in front of the intrenched poſition of the enemy. I intruſted the conduct of the attack againſt their right to major-general Cradock, and that againſt their left to major-general Moore. Thoſe two officers perfectly executed my

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intentions, and performed the ſervice committed to their care with much preciſion and ability. The action was neither obſtinate nor ſevere, and our loſs is but ſmall; but it afforded one more opportunity to diſplay the promptneſs of Britiſh officers, and the heroiſm of Britiſh ſoldiers. A part of general Doyle's brigade, the 30th regiment (but under the immediate command of colonel Spencer), had taken poſſeſſion of a hill in front of the enemy's right. General Menou, who was in perſon in that part of the French intrenched camp, directly oppoſite to our poſt, ordered about 600 men to make a ſortie, to drive us from our poſition. The enemy advanced in column with fixed bayonets and without firing a ſhot, till they got very cloſe to the 30th regiment, to whom colonel Spencer gave an immediate order to charge, though they did not conſiſt of more than 200 men; he was obeyed with a ſpirit and a determination worthy of the higheſt panegyric. The enemy were driven back to their intrenchments in the greateſt confuſion: they had many killed and wounded, and ſeveral taken priſoners.

On the night between the 18th and 19th, major-general Coote opened batteries againſt the caſtle of Marabout; an attack was alſo made from the ſea by ſeveral Turkiſh corvettes, and the launches and boats of the fleet, under the guidance of the honourable captain Cochrane: great perſeverance and exertions were required to get up heavy guns through a difficult and almoſt impracticable country; but the troops executed this painful and arduous ſervice with ſuch zeal and continued firmneſs, that the fort capitulated on the night of the 21ſt: the garriſon conſiſted of about 180 men, and were commanded by a chef de brigade.

On the morning of the 22d major-general Coote marched from Marabout to attack a ſtrong corps poſted in his front, in order to cover the approach to Alexandria; the managements of that excellent officer appear to have been able and judicious, and were attended with the moſt complete ſucceſs; he drove the enemy every where, though ſtrongly poſted, and in a country which oppoſed uncommon obſtacles to the progreſs of troops. The French ſuffered extremely in the action, and retreated in much confuſion, leaving their wounded and ſeven pieces of cannon behind them.

On the 24th, batteries were opened againſt the Redoubt de Bain; and on the 25th, at night, major-general Coote ſurpriſed the enemy's advanced poſts, when ſeven officers and fifty men were taken priſoners: this ſervice was gallantly performed by lieutenant-colonel Smith, with the 1ſt battalion of the 20th regiment, and a ſmall detachment of dragoons, under the orders of lieutenant Kelly of the 26th. The enemy endeavoured to regain poſſeſſion of the ground from which they had been driven, but were repulſed with loſs.

On the morning of the 26th we opened four batteries on each ſide of the town againſt the intrenched camp of the French, which ſoon ſilenced their fire, and induced them to withdraw many of their guns.

On the 27th, in the evening, general Menou ſent an aid-de-camp to requeſt an armiſtice for three days, in order to give time to prepare

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pare a capitulation, which, after ſome difficulties and delays, was ſigned on the 2d of September.

I have the honour to encloſe you a copy of the capitulation, and alſo a liſt of the number of perſons for whom the enemy have required ſhipping; by this it appears that the total of the garriſon of Alexandria conſiſted of upwards of 8000 ſoldiers, and 1300 ſailors.

This arduous and important ſervice has at length been brought to a concluſion. The exertions of individuals have been ſplendid and meritorious. I regret that the bounds of a diſpatch will not allow me to ſpecify the whole, or to mention the name of every perſon who has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the public ſervice. I have received the greateſt ſupport and aſſiſtance from the general officers of the army. The conduct of the troops of every deſcription has been exemplary in the higheſt degree; there has been much to applaud and nothing to reprehend; their order and regularity in the camp have been as conſpicuous as their courage in the field. To the quarter-maſter-general, lieutenant colonel Anſtruther, I owe much for his unwearied induſtry and zeal in the public ſervice, and for the aid, advice, and co-operation, which he has at all times afforded me. Brigadier-general Lawſon, who commanded the artillery, and captain Bryce, the chief engineer, have both great merit in their different departments. The local ſituation of Egypt preſents obſtacles of a moſt ſerious kind to military operations on an extended ſcale. The ſkill and perſeverance of thoſe two officers have overcome difficulties which at firſt appeared almoſt inſurmountable.

Lieutenant-colonel Lindenthal, who has always acted with the Turks, deſerves my utmoſt acknowledgements; his activity and diligence have been unremitted, and has introduced amongſt them an order and regularity which does him the higheſt honour.

During the courſe of the long ſervice on which we have been engaged, lord Keith has at all times given me the moſt able aſſiſtance and counſel. The labour and fatigue of the navy have been continued and exceſſive; it has not been of one day, or of one week, but for months together. In the bay of Aboukir, on the new inundation, and on the Nile for 160 miles, they have been employed without intermiſſion, and have ſubmitted to many privations with a cheerfulneſs and patience highly creditable to them, and advantageous to the public ſervice.

Sir Sidney Smith had originally the command of the ſeamen who landed from the fleet; he continued on ſhore till after the capture of Roſetta, and returned on board the Tigre a ſhort time before the appearance of admiral Gantheaume's ſquadron on the coaſt. He was preſent in the three actions of the 8th, 13th, and 21ſt of March, when he diſplayed that ardour of mind for the ſervice of his country, and that noble intrepidity for which he has been ever ſo conſpicuous. Captain Stevenſon of the Europa ſucceeded him, and I have every reaſon to be ſatisfied with his zeal and conduct. The crews of the gun-boats diſplayed great gallantry, under his guidance, in the new inundation; and much approbation is alſo due to the naval officers who acted under his orders.

Captain Preſsland, of the Regulus, has had the direction for many

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months paſt of all Greek ſhips in our employment, and of thoſe belonging to the commiſſariat. He has been active, zealous, and indefatigable, and merits my warmeſt approbation. I muſt, therefore, beg leave particularly to recommend this old and meritorious officer to your lordſhip's protection.

Allow me to expreſs an humble hope, that the army in Egypt have gratified the warmeſt wiſhes and expectations of their country. To them every thing is due, and to me nothing. It was my fate to ſucceed a man who created ſuch a ſpirit, and eſtabliſhed ſuch a diſcipline amongſt them, that little has been left for me to perform, except to follow his maxims, and to endeavour to imitate his conduct.

This diſpatch will be delivered to your lordſhip by colonel Abercromby, an officer of conſiderable ability, and worthy of the great name which he bears. He will one day, I truſt, emulate the virtue and talents of his never ſufficiently to be lamented father.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. Hely Hutchinſon,
lieutenant-general.

The right hon. lord Hobart, &c.

TRANSLATION.

Articles of the Capitulation propoſed by Abdoullahy Jaques François Menou, General in Chief of the French Army now in Alexandria, to the Generals commanding the Land and Sea Forces of his Britannic Majeſty and of the Sublime Porte, forming the Blockade of Alexandria; dated the 12th Fructidor, Year 9 of the French Republic (30th Auguſt, 1801).

Art. I. From the preſent date to the 30th Fructidor (17th September, 1801), there ſhall be a continuation of the truce and ſuſpenſion of arms between the French army and the combined armies of his Britannic majeſty and of the ſublime Porte, upon the ſame conditions with thoſe which actually ſubſiſt, with the exception of a regulation, to be amicably ſettled between the reſpective generals of the two armies, of eſtabliſhing a new line of advanced poſts, in order to remove all pretext of hoſtility between the troops.

Anſw. Refuſed.

Art. II. In caſe no adequate ſuccours ſhould arrive to the French army before the day mentioned in the preceding article, that army ſhall evacuate the forts and intrenched camps of Alexandria upon the following conditions.

Anſw. Refuſed.

Art. III. The French army ſhall retire, on the firſt complementary day of the French æra, into the city of Alexandria and forts adjacent, and ſhall deliver up to the allied powers the intrenched camp in front of the lines of the Arabs, the fort Le Turc, and the fort Du Vivier, together with their artillery and ammunition.

Anſw. In forty-eight hours after the ſigning of the capitulation, namely, on the 2d of September, at noon, the intrenched camps, the fort Turc, and that of Du Vivier, ſhall be delivered up to the allied powers: the ammunition and artillery of theſe forts ſhall alſo be given up. The French troops ſhall evacuate the city, forts, and dependencies of Alexandria, ten days after ſigning the capitulation, or at the time of their embarkation.

Art. IV. All individuals, conſtituting

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tuting a part of the French army, or attached to it by any relations, military or civil; the auxiliary troops of every nation, country, or religion, or of whatever powers they may have been ſubjects before the arrival of the French, ſhall preſerve their property of every deſcription, their effects, papers, &c. &c. which ſhall not be ſubject to any examination.

Anſw. Granted; provided that nothing be carried away belonging to the government of the French republic, but only the effects, baggage, and other articles belonging to the French and auxiliary ſoldiers, who have ſerved during ſix months in the army of the republic: the ſame is to be underſtood of all the individuals attached to the French army, by civil or military capacities, of whatever nation, country, or religion, they may be.

Art. V. The French forces, the auxiliary troops, and all the individuals deſcribed in the preceding article, ſhall be embarked in the ports of Alexandria between the 5th and the 10th of Vendemaire, year 10 of the republic, at the lateſt (27th September to the 3d October, 1801), together with their arms, ſtores, baggage, effects, and property of all kinds, official papers, and depoſits, one field-piece to each battalion and ſquadron, with ammunition, &c. &c.; the whole to be conveyed to one of the ports of the French republic in the Mediterranean, to be determined by the general in chief of the French army.

Anſw. The French forces, the auxiliary troops, and all the individuals deſcribed in the 4th article, ſhall be embarked in the ports of Alexandria (unleſs, after an amicable convention, it ſhould be found more expeditious to embark a part of them at Aboukir), as ſoon as veſſels can be prepared, the allied powers at the ſame time engaging that the embarkation ſhall take place, if poſſible, ten days after the capitulation ſhall be ſigned; they ſhall receive all the honours of war, ſhall carry away their arms and baggage, ſhall not be priſoners of war, and ſhall moreover take with them ten pieces of cannon, from four to eight pounders, with ten rounds of ſhot to each gun: they ſhall be conveyed to a French port in the Mediterranean.

Art. VI. The French ſhips of war, with their full complement, and all merchant-ſhips, to whatever nation or individuals they may belong, even thoſe of nations at war with the allied powers, or thoſe that are the property of owners or merchants who were ſubject to the allied powers before the arrival of the French, ſhall depart with the French army, in order that thoſe that are ſhips of war may be reſtored to the French government, and the merchant-ſhips to the owners, or to their aſſignees.

Anſw. Refuſed: all veſſels ſhall be delivered up as they are.

Art. VII. Every ſingle ſhip that, from the preſent day to the 30th Fructidor, ſhall arrive from the French republic, or any of her allies, into the ports or road of Alexandria, ſhall be comprehended in this capitulation. Every ſhip of war or commerce belonging to France, or the allies of the republic, that ſhall arrive in the ports or road of Alexandria within the twenty days immediately following the evacuation of that place, ſhall not be conſidered a lawful prize, but ſhall be ſet at liberty, with her equipage and

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cargo, and be furniſhed with a paſſport from the allied powers.

Anſw. Refuſed.

Art. VIII. The French and auxiliary troops, the civil and military agents attached to the army, and all other individuals deſcribed in the preceding articles, ſhall be embarked on board ſuch French and other veſſels, actually in the ports of Alexandria, as ſhall be in a condition to go to ſea; or on board thoſe of his Britannic majeſty and of the ſublime Porte, within the time fixed by the 5th article.

Art. IX. Commiſſaries ſhall be named by each party to regulate the number of veſſels to be employed, the number of men to be embarked upon them, and generally to provide for all the difficulties that may ariſe in carrying into execution the preſent capitulation. Thoſe commiſſaries ſhall agree upon the different poſitions which ſhall be taken by the ſhips now in the port of Alexandria, and thoſe which ſhall be furniſhed by the allied powers, ſo that by a well-regulated arrangement, every occaſion of difference between the crews of the ſeveral nations may be avoided.

Anſw. All theſe details will be regulated by the Engliſh admiral, and by an officer of the French navy named by the general in chief.

Art. X. Merchants and owners of ſhips, of whatever nation or religion they may be, and alſo the inhabitants of Egypt, and of every other country, who may at the preſent time be in Alexandria, whether Syrians, Copts, Greeks, Arabs, Jews, &c. and who ſhall be deſirous of following the French army, ſhall be embarked with, and enjoy the ſame advantages with that army: they ſhall be at liberty to remove their property of all kinds, and to leave powers for the diſpoſal of what they may not be able to take away. All arrangements, all ſales, all ſtipulations, whether of commerce, or of any other nature made by them, ſhall be ſtrictly carried into effect after their departure, and be maintained by the generals of his Britannic majeſty and of the ſublime Porte. Thoſe who may prefer remaining in Egypt a certain time on account of their private affairs, ſhall be at liberty to do ſo, and ſhall have full protection from the allied powers; thoſe alſo who may be deſirous of eſtabliſhing themſelves in Egypt, ſhall be entitled to all the privileges and rights of which they were in poſſeſſion before the arrival of the French.

Anſw. Every article of merchandiſe, whether in the town of Alexandria, or on board the veſſels that are in the ports, ſhall be proviſionally at the diſpoſition of the allied powers, but ſubject to ſuch definitive regulation as may be determined by eſtabliſhed uſage and the law of nations. Private merchants ſhall be at liberty to accompany the French army, or they may remain in the country in ſecurity.

Art. XI. None of the inhabitants of Egypt, or of any other nation or religion, ſhall be called to account for their conduct during the period of the French troops having been in the country, particularly for having taken arms in their favour, or having been employed by them.

Anſw. Granted.

Art. XII. The troops, and all others who may be embarked with them, ſhall be fed during their paſſage, and until their arrival in France, at the expenſe of the allied powers, and conformably to the rules

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rules of the French navy. The allied powers shall supply every thing that may be necessary for the embarkation.

Answ. The troops, and all others who may be embarked with them, shall be fed during their passage, and until their arrival in France, at the expense of the allied powers, according to the usage established in the marine of England.

Art. XIII. The consuls, and all other public agents of the several powers in alliance with the French republic, shall continue in the enjoyment of all the privileges and rights which are granted by civilized nations to diplomatic agents: their property, all their effects and papers, shall be respected, and placed under the protection of the allied powers: They shall be at liberty to retire or remain, as they may think fit.

Answ. The consuls, and all other public agents of the powers in alliance with the French republic, shall be at liberty to remain or to retire, as they may judge fit. Their property and effects of any kind, together with their papers, shall be preserved for them, provided they conduct themselves with loyalty, and conformably to the law of nations.

Art. XIV. The sick, who may be judged by the medical staff of the army to be in a state for removal, shall be embarked at the same time with the army, upon hospital-ships properly furnished with medicines, provisions, and every other store that may be necessary for their situation; and they shall be attended by French surgeons. Those of the sick who may not be in a condition to undertake the voyage, shall be delivered over to the care and humanity of the allied powers. French physicians and other medical assistance shall be left for their care, to be maintained at the expense of the allied powers, who shall send them to France as soon as their state of health may permit, together with any thing belonging to them, in the same manner as has been proposed for the rest of the army.

Answ. Granted. The ships destined for hospitals shall be prepared for the reception of those who may fall sick during the passage. The medical staff of the two armies shall concert together in what manner to dispose of those of the sick who, having contagious disorders, ought not to have communication with the others.

Art. XV. Horse transports for conveying sixty horses, with every thing necessary for their subsistence during the passage, shall be furnished.

Answ. Granted.

Art. XVI. The individuals composing the institute of Egypt, and the commission of arts, shall carry with them all the papers, plans, memoirs, collections of natural history, and all the monuments of art and antiquity, collected by them in Egypt.

Answ. The members of the institute may carry with them all the instruments of arts and science which they have brought from France; but the Arabian manuscripts, the statues, and other collections which have been made for the French republic, shall be considered as public property, and subject to the disposal of the generals of the combined army.

General Hope having declared, in consequence of some observations of the commander-in-chief of the French army, that he could make

no

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no alteration in this article, it has been agreed that a reference thereupon ſhould be made to the commander-in-chief of the combined army.

Art. XVII. The veſſels which ſhall be employed in conveying the French and auxiliary army, as well as the different perſons who ſhall accompany it, ſhall be eſcorted by ſhips of war belonging to the allied powers, who formally engage that they ſhall not, in any manner, be moleſted during their voyage; the ſafety of ſuch of theſe veſſels as may be ſeparated by ſtreſs of weather or other accidents, ſhall be guarantied by the generals of the allied forces; the veſſels conveying the French army ſhall not, under any pretence, touch at any other than the French coaſt, except in caſe of abſolute neceſſity.

Anſw. Granted. The commander-in-chief of the French army entering into a reciprocal engagement that none of theſe veſſels ſhall be moleſted during their ſtay in France, or on their return; he equally engaging that they ſhall be furniſhed with every thing which may be neceſſary, according to the conſtant practice of European powers.

Art. XVIII. At the time of giving up the camps and forts, according to the terms of the 3d article, the priſoners in Egypt ſhall be reſpectively given up on both ſides.

Anſw. Granted.

Art. XIX. Commiſſaries ſhall be named, to receive the artillery of the place and of the forts, ſtores, magazines, plans, and other articles that the French leave to the allied powers; and liſts and inventories ſhall be made out, ſigned by the commiſſaries of the different powers, according as the forts and magazines ſhall be given up to the allied powers.

Anſw. Granted: provided that all the plans of the city and forts of Alexandria, as well as all maps of the country, ſhall be delivered up to the Engliſh commiſſary. The batteries, ciſterns, and other public buildings, ſhall alſo be given up in the condition in which they actually are.

Art. XX. A paſſport ſhall be granted to a French armed veſſel, in order to convey to Toulon, immediately after the camps and forts before mentioned ſhall be given up, officers charged by the commander-in-chief to carry to his government the preſent capitulation.

Anſw. Granted: but if it is a French veſſel, it ſhall not be armed.

Art. XXI. On giving up the camps and forts mentioned in the preceding articles, hoſtages ſhall be given on both ſides, in order to guaranty the execution of the preſent treaty. They ſhall be choſen from among the officers of rank in the reſpective armies, namely, four from the French army, two from the Britiſh troops, and two from the troops of the ſublime Porte. The four French hoſtages ſhall be embarked on board the Engliſh ſhip commanding the ſquadron, and the four Britiſh and Turkiſh hoſtages on board one of the veſſels which ſhall carry the commander-in chief, or the lieutenant-generals. They ſhall all be reciprocally delivered up on their arrival in France.

Anſw. There ſhall be placed in the hands of the commander-in-chief of the French army four officers of rank as hoſtages, namely, one officer of the navy, one officer of the Britiſh army, and two officers of the Turkiſh army. The commander-in-chief

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chief ſhall, in like manner, place in the hands of the commander-in-chief of the Britiſh army four officers of rank. The hoſtages ſhall be reſtored on both ſides at the period of the embarkation.

Art. XXII. If any difficulties ſhould ariſe during the execution of the preſent capitulation, they ſhall be amicably ſettled by the commiſſaries of the armies.

Anſw. Granted.

(Signed) Keith, admiral.
(Signed) J. Hely Hutchinſon, lieutenant-general, commanding in chief.
(Signed) Huſſein, capitan pacha.
(Signed) AbdoullahyJacques François Menou, general-in-chief of the French army.

(A true copy.)
James Kempt, lieutenant-colonel and ſecretary.

London Gazette, Nov. 14, 1801.

Extracts from Diſpatches from Lieutenant-General the Honourable Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. commanding his Majeſty's Troops ſerving in Egypt.

Head-quarters, Camp before Alexandria, Auguſt 19.

My lord,

The laſt diviſion of the French troops who ſurrendered at Cairo ſailed from the bay of Aboukir a few days ago. There have been embarked in all near 13,500 perſons. The garriſon of Cairo conſiſted of about 8000 troops of all deſcriptions, fit for duty, not including 1000 ſick, and a conſiderable number of invalids. The total amounts to near 10,000 ſoldiers, amongſt whom there was a very ſmall proportion of Greeks and Copts, not more than 4 or 500 men: the remainder were all French. The other perſons embarked were followers of the army, and attached to it in various civil capacities.

Major-general Craddock having been confined at Cairo by illneſs, I intruſted the command of the troops to major-general Moore, who, during a long march of a very novel and critical nature, diſplayed much judgment, and conducted himſelf in the moſt able and judicious manner. Notwithſtanding the mixture of Turks, Britiſh, and French, the utmoſt regularity was preſerved, and no one diſagreeable circumſtance ever took place. My preſence at Cairo was rendered indiſpenſably neceſſary, by ſome arrangements which I was obliged to make with his highneſs the grand vizier,

Major-general Baird, after having ſtruggled through many difficulties in paſſing the deſert, and from want of boats to deſcend the Nile, has at length arrived at Cairo with the greateſt part of the troops under his command, and I imagine he will reach Roſetta in the courſe of a few days: he has been directed to detach a certain number of troops to Damietta, and to leave a garriſon at Gaza.

We two days ago commenced our operations againſt Alexandria; as yet no event of any conſequence has taken place; we have loſt a few men, and taken a few priſoners.

Major-general Coote has been detached with a conſiderable corps to the weſtward, in order to inveſt the town completely on that ſide, and to cut off the communication of the enemy with the Arabs, who have been in the habit of ſupplying them with ſmall quantities of cattle and

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and other kinds of freſh provisions. General Coote's firſt operation will be directed againſt Marabout, a caſtle on an iſland at the entrance of the old harbour of Alexandria.

I cannot conclude this letter without ſtating to your lordſhip the many obligations I have to lord Keith and the navy, for the great exertions they have uſed in forwarding to us the neceſſary ſupplies, and from the fatigue they have undergone in the late embarkation of a conſiderable number of troops and ſtores, who were embarked on the new lake, and proceeded to the weſtward under the orders of major-general Coote.

The utmoſt diſpatch has alſo been uſed in ſending the French troops, lately captured, to France; which, in our preſent poſition, was a ſervice of the moſt eſſential conſequence.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) J. Hely Hutchinſon,
lieut. general.

Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-General the Honourable Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. to the Right Honourable Lord Hobart.

Head-quarters, Camp before Alexandria, Aug. 19.

I was honoured with your lordſhip's diſpatches of the 19th May, at Cairo, where I remained to ſettle ſome eſſential buſineſs with his highneſs the grand vizier, on the ſubject of the Mamalukes; I have put their affairs in a train of negotiation, and I hope to bring them to a fortunate iſſue.

The ſiege of Alexandria will probably be attended with many difficulties; the works towards the eaſt ſide, where we are encamped, are prodigiouſly ſtrong, and can hardly be approached on account of the narrowneſs of the ſpace between the lake and the ſea, and the nature of the ground; towards the weſt the works are not ſo ſtrong, but however the difficulties in approaching them are alſo numerous; the corps there is completely in the deſert, the communication with us (by whom they muſt be ſupplied with every thing) is tedious, and the boats employed have a moſt ſevere duty to perform; general Coote has, however, been ſo fortunate as to find water. On the whole, I cannot flatter myſelf that Alexandria will be in our poſſeſſion in a ſhort time, unleſs ſome event takes place, of which we are not at preſent aware.

The reinforcements from England, Minorca, and Malta, are all arrived, except the 48th regiment from the latter place; they are very fine troops, and in a perfect ſtate of health, order, and diſcipline.

Admiralty Office, November, 14.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Honourable Lord Keith, Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Eſq.

Foudroyant, Bay of Aboukir, September 2.

Sir,

I have the honour and ſatisfaction of acquainting you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that the important object of this expedition is fully accomplished; a capitulation (of which a copy is enclosed) has been this day ſigned, providing for the delivery to the allies, to-morrow, of the enemy's intrenched camp on the eaſtern ſide of Alexandria, and the

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the fort Triangulaire, and the other important posts on the western side; and for that of the town itself, the public effects and the shipping in the harbour, at the expiration of ten days, or sooner, if the enemy's troops can be sooner embarked. As soon as I can obtain returns of the ships and effects they shall be transmitted to you. The merchant-vessels are very numerous, and one old Venetian ship of the line, with the French frigates Egyptienne, Justice, and Régénéré, and some corvettes, are known to be in the port.

Their lordships will not fail to have observed, from my former details, the meritorious conduct of the officers and men who have been, from time to time, employed on the various duties which the debarkation of the army and a co-operation with them has required. Though opportunities for brilliant exertion have been few since the 8th of March, the desire for participating in it has been unremitted. But the nature of this expedition has demanded from most of the officers and seamen of the fleet, and particularly from those of the troop-ships, bomb-vessels, and transports, the endurance of labour, fatigue, and privation far beyond what I have witnessed before, and which I verily believe to have exceeded all former example, and it has been encountered and surmounted with a degree of resolution and perseverance which merits my highest praise, and gives both officers and men a just claim to the protection of their lordships, and the approbation of their country. The number of officers to whom I owe this tribute of approbation, does not admit of my mentioning them by name; but most of the captains of the troop-ships have been employed in the superintendance of these duties, and I have had repeated and urgent offers of voluntary service from all. The agents for transports have conducted themselves with laudable diligence and activity in the service of the several departments to which they are attached, and displayed the greatest exertion and ability in overcoming the numerous difficulties with which they had to contend.

The captains and commanders of the ships appointed for guarding the Porte, have executed that tedious and anxious duty with diligence and success. During my absence from the squadron the blockade has been conducted much to my satisfaction by rear-admiral sir R. Bickerton; and justice requires me to mention, that when I was with the squadron, captain Wilson, of the Trusty, was unwearied in his attention to the direction of all the duties in this bay.

The capitan pacha has uniformly manifested the most anxious desire of contributing, by every means in his power, to the promotion of the service. Having been generally on shore with his troops, the ships have been submitted, by his orders, to my direction, and the officers have paid the most respectful attention to the instructions they have received from me.

Captain sir Sidney Smith, who has served with such distinguished reputation in this country, having applied to be the bearer of the dispatches announcing the expulsion of the enemy, I have complied with his request; and I beg to refer their lordships to that active and intelligent

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intelligent officer for any particular information relative to this or other parts of the country, on which he has had opportunities of making remarks.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) Keith.

Copy of another Letter from the Right Honourable Lord Keith, Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Esq.

Foudroyant, Bay of Aboukir, September 10.

Sir,

You will be pleaſed to acquaint their lordſhips, that the capitan pacha and I have agreed on the enclosed diſtribution of the veſſels of war found in the enemy's poſſeſſion in Alexandria, of which I truſt their lordſhip's will approve.

I have, &c.
Keith.

His Highneſs the Capitan Pacha and Lord Keith have agreed to receive the Enemy's Ships as under, viz.

Capitan Pacha—Cauſe 64; Juſtice 46; No. 1, Venetian 26.

Lord Keith—L'Egyptienne 50; Régéneré 32; No. 2, Venetian 26.

The Turkiſh corvettes to be given to the capitan pacha; but to be previouſly valued.

London Gazette, Nov. 17, 1801.

Admiralty-Office, Nov. 17.

Copy of a Letter from the Right Hon. Lord Keith, K. B. Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Esq.

Foudroyant, off Alexandria, Auguſt 27.

Sir,

My letter of the 5th inſtant acquainted you, for the information of their lordſhips, that the embarkation of general Belliard's corps was carrying into execution with all poſſible diſpatch; but, on account of the difficulty of getting forward the immenſe quantity of baggage that they brought with them from Cairo, the operation was protracted till the 8th. The ſhips of war, as well as the tranſports, however, were directed to proceed by diviſions. The Braakel, with the firſt diviſion, ſailed on the 4th; the Inflexible, Dolphin, and Ulyſſes, with the ſecond, on the 6th; and the Experiment and Pallas, with the laſt, on the 10th, carrying with them between 13 and 14,000 individuals of all deſcriptions.

The army from Cairo moved on forthwith to the camp before Alexandria; and the general, who did me the honour of ſpending ſome days with me while the embarkation of the French was going on, reſolved on tranſporting by the Mareotis, to the weſtward of Alexandria, a corps of about 5000 men, under the orders of major-general Coote, to divide the enemy's force and attention, to inveſt the town cloſely on that ſide, and cut off all farther hope of reinforcement or ſupplies by land. On the 12th I proceeded with lieutenant-colonel Anſtruther, the quarter-maſter-general, to examine the enemy's poſition on the ſide of the lake, and the ſtrength of the flotilla that they had aſſembled there; and having aſcertained that their armed force could be eaſily ſubdued, and that a debarkation could be effected with little or no difficulty, the general determined to carry the meaſure into immediate effect. To ſecure the landing from interruption, captain Stevenſon, of the Europa, who

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is continued in the command of the flotilla, was forthwith directed to take a ſtation in front of the gun-boats and armed boats which the enemy had aſſembled on the lake, and drawn up in a line under the protection of batteries thrown up for their defence, to keep them in check till they could be ſeized or deſtroyed. On the evening of the 16th, all the boats of the ſhips of war and the tranſports in this bay, were aſſembled in the Mareotis, with as many germs as could be collected from the Nile, for the purpoſe of receiving the troops, who were embarked in the night, and landed without oppoſition the next morning, under the ſuperintendance of captain Elphinſtone, conſiderably farther to the weſtward than was intended, the wind not admitting of the boats reaching the ſhore nearer to the town; the enemy ſeeing no proſpect left of ſaving their armed boats, ſet fire to them, and blew them all up in the courſe of this and the following day, except two or three which have fallen into our hands. Whilſt the landing was carrying into effect, captain ſir W. S. Smith, of the Tigre, was directed with ſome ſloops of war and armed boats to make a demonſtration of attack upon the town.

On the night of the 17th, major-general Coote was enabled to eſtabliſh batteries againſt Marabout, a ſmall fortified iſland that protects the entrance into the great harbour of Alexandria, on the weſtern ſide, and diſtant from the town about ſeven or eight miles, which, for many reaſons, it was important to poſſeſs. Rear-admiral ſir Richard Bickerton, having the command of the ſquadron blockading the port, directed armed launches from the ſhips to co-operate with the troops; and the garriſon, conſiſting of near 200 men, unequal to farther reſiſtance, ſurrendered as priſoners of war, on the evening of the 21ſt. Mr. Hull, midſhipman, and one ſeaman, of the Ajax, were killed on this ſervice, and two ſeamen of the Northumberland, wounded.

On the afternoon of the ſame day the rear-admiral ordered the Cynthia, Port Mahon, Victorieuſe, and Bonne Citoyenne, with three Turkiſh corvettes, to proceed into the harbour under the direction of the honourable captain Cochrane, of the Ajax (a channel having been previouſly ſurveyed with great induſtry and preciſion by lieutenant Withers, of the Kent), and on the morning of the 22d major-general Coote's detachment moved forward four or five miles on the narrow iſthmus leading to the town, formed by the Mareotis or inundation of the ſouth ſide, and the harbour on the north; captain Stevenſon, with the gun-veſſels on the lake, covering the right flank, and captain Cochrane, with the ſloops of war and armed boats, protecting their left. The poſition which the major-general took up, and that occupied by our little ſquadron, which has been ſince reinforced by the Diana, completed the blockade of the town. The rear-admiral gives great commendation to the honourable captain Cochrane, for the zealous and judicious manner in which he executed the ſervice intruſted to him. Soon after our ſhips entered the harbour, the enemy ſunk ſeveral veſſels between our advanced ſhips and their veſſels in the port, to obſtruct our farther progreſs to the eaſtward, and

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and moved their frigates and corvettes from Fig-tree Point close up to the town.

General Menou finding himself closely pressed on the eastward of the town by the commander-in-chief, who had carried some of the enemy's redoubts, and established strong batteries against their intrenched lines; and on the western side by major-general Coote, who had, during the preceding night, driven in several of their outposts, and advanced up to an important position which the enemy seemed conscious of being unable to defend, sent out, on the evening of the 26th, proposals for an armistice of three days to arrange terms of capitulation, which I have no doubt will soon terminate in the surrender of the town.

I have the honour to be, sir, &c.
Keith.

London Gazette, May 12, 1801.

Extracts from Dispatches from Rear-Admiral Duckworth, Commander-in-Chief of his Majesty's Ships and Vessels at Barbadoes and the Leeward Islands, to Evan Nepean Esq. Secretary of the Admiralty.

Leviathan, at Sea, March 27.

Sir,

Having consulted with lieutenant-general Trigge, on the subject of the orders of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, we determined not to wait for the expected reinforcements, but collect the troops that the general thought might be employed with dispatch; and we sailed on the 16th, with about 1500 troops, for the purpose of attacking the various islands specified in our orders, the general and myself considering it most judicious to commence with the weathermost one, St. Bartholomew, though by calms and very variable winds we were prevented from getting to Grand Saline Bay (our intended place of landing) till the morning of the 20th, when, having prepared every thing for that purpose, and placed the Andromeda, L'Unité, and Drake brig to cover it, the general and myself deemed it expedient to prevent delay, by sending brigadier-general Fuller, and captain King of the Leviathan, with a summons, which, after some little hesitation, was accepted, and the capitulation I transmit entered into. I then detached the Andromeda with the Alexandria tender to assist in watching St. Thomas's, when every exertion was used to land a garrison, and form such temporary arrangements as the urgency of the service would admit; all of which were effected by the morning of the 22d. We found here two Swedish ships nearly laden with produce of this country, a Danish ship in ballast, besides a variety of small craft, Swedish, and three small French vessels; and I left captain Thomas Harvey, in L'Unité, to co-operate with the commandant of that island, and at ten o'clock, A. M. were in the act of weighing, when ten sail were seen from the mast head; I therefore ordered the Drake brig and L'Eclair schooner to reconnoitre, keeping the wind, myself concluding they were our troops from England, which the general and myself had sent orders to Barbadoes to follow us after landing their sick, with women and children; this, from light airs, was not ascertained till ten o'clock at night, when they

proved

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proved as conjectured, and the Proſelyte joined in the afternoon of the 24th. Upon this accumulation of force, the general and myſelf, after ſome deliberation, judged it would be highly injurious to his majeſty's ſervice, and render St. Bartholomew very unſafe, if we omitted attacking the iſland of St. Martin: we therefore (though it was not mentioned in our inſtructions), prompted by the rectitude of our intentions, decided upon endeavouring to reduce it, and midnight of the 22d bore away for that purpoſe; but the unprecedented variableneſs of the winds prevented our getting there till daylight of the 24th; and on the afternoon of the 23d the Coromandel joined with the 2d Weſt India regiment, when, having placed captain Fowke in the Proſelyte, with the Drake brig, in Coles Bay, to cover the landing, under the direction of captain Ekins of the Amphitrite (who had been ſick at Barbadoes, but joined me in the Proſelyte, and handſomely volunteered this ſervice), which commenced at half paſt eight o'clock; and with his judicious arrangements, the ſecond brigade, of near 1500 men, under brigadier-general Maitland, were on ſhore with their field-pieces, and 100 ſeamen, by eleven o'clock, as was the firſt brigade of 1800, under brigadier-general Fuller, by two o'clock, with their field-pieces, and 100 ſeamen. The ſecond brigade directly proceeded on to take the heights in the approach to the town of Phillipſburgh, which was quickly effected, though not without ſome ſmart ſkirmiſhing, which afterwards brought on a ſhort action, in which ſome companies of the 64th, under lieutenant-colonel Pakenham, and two companies of the 8th Weſt India regiment, diſplayed great gallantry, beat the enemy, and took two field-pieces. At this time brigadier-general Fuller, with the firſt brigade, marched on to take the heights above Fort Cheſterfield, or Maregot, where we had reaſon to expect the greateſt reſiſtance; but the former check (in which the enemy loſt from fifty to ſixty killed and wounded) evinced that oppoſition could only lead to deſtruction, and they embraced a verbal ſummons (ſent in by brigadier general Maitland, at five o'clock) to propoſe their terms at nine; when lieutenant-general Trigge and ſelf, being on the ſpot, the capitulation was ſigned and exchanged by midnight of the 24th, of which I tranſmit a copy for their lordſhips information. At the commencement of the attack we obſerved in Great Bay two privateer brigs, of 12 guns each, and a ſchooner of the ſame force, with a merchant-ſhip, brig, and nine or ten ſmall craft; and as I conſidered them likely to attempt getting off in the courſe of the night, if it was found neceſſary to ſurrender, I ordered the Hornet and Fanny armed brig to work up to Great Bay, to prevent ſuch attempt from ſucceeding, and at ſunſet ſent the Drake to aid on that ſervice; but, unfortunately, the two firſt did not get far enough to windward to fulfil my intention, by which means one of the brigs and the ſchooner got out, with a few ſmall veſſels, five of which were taken: but I am to lament the brig and ſchooner getting away, after a chaſe of twenty-four hours, by the Hornet and Fanny. We found remaining in the bay, one brig privateer of 12 guns, an Engliſh captured ſhip, a merchant-brig, four ſmall ſchooners, and a ſloop; the particulars of which my

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time would not allow me to collect, as I began to embark the troops, ordnance, &c. &c. the next morning, the 25th, and sailed for St. Thomas's the afternoon of the 26th, leaving the Proselyte, Hornet, and Drake, to assist in the arrangements necessary for the security of the island, and two transports to embark the garrison in, which consisted of between 3 and 400, besides nearly a similar number which got away in the brig, &c.

I have ordered the Proselyte to relieve L'Unité, keeping with her the Drake for the assisting protection of the two islands, and L'Unité to conduct the prisoners to Martinique, arranging and getting ready to convoy the trade home.

I cannot conclude this account of our successful proceedings, for their lordships information, without paying that grateful tribute which is due to lieutenant-general Trigge for his kind support and concurrence in every instance, and for his anxious endeavours to preserve that particular harmony and unanimity between the army and navy, which must always contribute to the success of every undertaking. I should not do justice to the officers and men serving under my command, if I was to omit assuring their lordships they have performed the harassing and laborious service they have been employed in highly to my satisfaction, and with an alacrity characteristic of British seamen; and I have the honour to be, sir, &c. &c. &c.

J. T. Duckworth.

By Lieutenant-General Thomas Trigge and Rear-Admiral John Thomas Duckworth, Commanders-in-Chief of his Britannic Majesty's Land and Sea Forces employed at the Windward and Leeward Islands, &c. &c. &c.

The king, our master, having viewed with the deepest concern the unjust combination lately entered into between the courts of Sweden, Denmark, and Russia, to support the principles of an armed neutrality, contrary to the law of nations and the positive stipulations of treaties; his majesty, therefore, feels himself called upon to adopt such measures, as a conduct so hostile to the just and ancient privileges of the British flag requires, on his part, for the maintenance and preservation of the best rights of his people, and in support of the most solemn treaties, thereby violated, and to consider, though with the greatest reluctance, those courts as enemies of Great Britain.

Feeling that resistance on your part would only tend to increase the calamities of war, which it is our most earnest desire to alleviate, we have sent this summons by brigadier-general Fuller, of the land forces, and captain King, of the royal navy, requiring you to surrender the island of St. Bartholomew, together with all ships and vessels, stores, and public property of every description.

Knowing how ardently it is the desire of our royal master to avert the sufferings of individuals, and it being no less our own disposition and wish to soften their distresses, we take this opportunity to declare, that the private property of the inhabitants will be respected, as well as whatever belongs to the subjects of the United States of America; and in case of immediate submission, that the laws, customs, and religious usages

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usages of the island shall not be infringed.

Dated on board his majesty's ship Leviathan, this 20th day of March, 1801.

(Signed) Thomas Trigge, lieutenant-general.
J. T. Duckworth, rear-admiral.

His excellency the governor of St. Bartholomew.

His Majesty's Ship Leviathan, March 20.

Sir,

His majesty's friendly disposition towards the interests of the United States of America, and their inhabitants, corresponding so perfectly with our own, we, in order the more certainly to prevent any cause of misunderstanding on the present occasion, have taken this opportunity to express our just expectation, that the subjects of America, at present residing in the island of St. Bartholomew, will not lend themselves to any collusive transactions, with a view of preventing such property from coming into possession of the forces under our command, as of right ought to be forfeited to the crown of Great Britain. As whatever reluctance we might feel in adopting a measure so extremely disagreeable to us, it nevertheless would be our duty, not only to resist, in every instance, such unbecoming proceedings, but be the means of obliging us to act against whoever might be concerned in a transaction of so improper a nature, in a manner which we would ever wish to avoid. At the time of making this communication, we hope not to be understood as conceiving any thing of the nature now alluded to, at all likely to occur. We feel satisfied of the contrary, and have noticed it merely as a measure of precaution, to those who might otherwise have been unwarily led into a step, without being aware of the consequences attendant.

We have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) Thos. Trigge, lieutenant-general.
J. T. Duckworth, rear-admiral.

Whereas war between Great Britain and Sweden being announced by the arrival of an armament at this island, summoning it to surrender to his Britannic majesty, I do hereby agree to deliver it up to the British on the following conditions:

Art. I. That all his Swedish majesty's property, now delivered, shall, according to inventory, be restored when the colony is returned to his majesty the king of Sweden.

Answer.—All his Swedish majesty's property must be delivered up to the British unconditionally.

Art. II. That all the inhabitants of this colony, of what nation soever, shall be protected in their persons and property, and at liberty to leave the island, or remain here; and in the first case, to take with them their property, without confiscation or other hindrance. Whereunder is comprehended goods, merchandize, and vessels.

Answer. — All Swedish inhabitants, and those of the United States of America, shall be protected in their persons and property, and be at liberty to leave the island, or remain on it, while they do not act inconsistently with the interests of the

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Britiſh: by property is to be underſtood goods and merchandize on ſhore.

Art. III. That all military and civil officers, as well as the garriſon, ſhall, when deſired, be tranſported to Sweden at the expenſe of his Britannic majeſty, without being conſidered priſoners of war, and at liberty to take their property with them.

Anſwer.—The garriſon muſt be conſidered as priſoners of war; every poſſible indulgence will be granted them, and their property reſpected.

Art. IV. All public papers and documents to be reſpected, and allowed to be ſent to Sweden.

Anſwer.—All public papers and documents muſt be ſubmitted to the inſpection of the Britiſh.

Art. V. Religion, laws, and cuſtoms, ſhall remain in the ſame ſtate as they now are.

Anſwer.—Agreed to.

Art. VI. The papers and documents belonging to the French delegation here, to be ſuffered to be ſent away unmoleſted.

Anſwer.—All papers belonging to the enemies of Great Britain muſt be delivered up.

Art. VII. That ſix days be allowed to deliver up whatever may belong to his Swediſh majeſty, and for an inventory to be made of the ſame; during which ſpace of time I deſire to be guarded by my own troops.

Anſwer.—Every protection is enſured to the perſon of the governor; but the troops of his Swediſh majeſty muſt be diſarmed immediately after the ſurrender of the place; and his Swediſh majeſty's property muſt be delivered up to the Britiſh as ſoon as poſſible, and likewiſe all the forts and ſtrong poſts muſt be ſurrendered to the Britiſh troops as ſoon as theſe articles are ratified by the commander-in-chief.

Guſtavia, in the iſland of St. Bartholomew, the 20th day of March, 1801.

H. Ankarheim.
Francis Fuller, brig. general.
E. D. King, capt. royal navy.

Confirmed and ratified by us, the commanders-in-chief of his Britannic majeſty's forces. Dated on board his majeſty's ſhip Leviathan, this 20th day of March, 1801.

Thomas Trigge, lieutenant-general.
John Thomas Duckworth, rear-admiral.

By their Excellencies Lieutenant-General Thomas Trigge, and Rear-Admiral John Thomas Duckworth, Commanders-in-Chief of his Britannic Majeſty's Forces, &c. &c.

The ſuperiority of the force which it has pleaſed his Britannic majeſty to place under our joint command, rendering every hope of reſiſtance, on your part, altogether ineffectual, we, in order to avert the conſequences that ſo evidently would attend any oppoſition which, from a vain expectation of ſucceſs, you might be induced to make, and to give you the only opportunity in our power to afford, of avoiding the effects ſo certainly to be apprehended, have taken this means of manifeſting the moderation with which it is our deſire to proceed.

And we do therefore require you, in the name of the king our maſter, immediately to ſurrender into our poſſeſſion the iſland of St. Martin, as

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as likewiſe all ſtores and veſſels, together with the property of every deſcription.

Done on board his Britannic majeſty's ſhip Leviathan, this 24th day of March, 1801.

(Signed) Thomas Trigge, lieutenant general.
J. T. Duckworth, rear-admiral.

To his excellency the governor of St. Martin.

Capitulation of the Iſland of St. Martin.

Art. I. That all property, both French and Dutch, ſhall be reſpected.

Anſwer.—All public property, military and naval ſtores, muſt be delivered up; as likewiſe all ſhips and veſſels, with their cargoes, belonging to the enemies of Great Britain and Ireland. The private property of the ancient inhabitants, both French and Dutch, is to be reſpected; but we reſerve to ourſelves the right to determine with reſpect to ſuch property as has been acquired of late years.

Art. II. The French troops ſhall march out at eight o'clock to-morrow morning with their arms, drums beating, and be allowed to take their baggage.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. III. The French delegate, the commandant, and the officers compoſing the garriſon of St. Martin, ſhall be embarked with their effects and arms, which they are to be allowed to keep in their poſſeſſion.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. IV. The officers of the civil department ſhall be treated as the military, and a veſſel ſhall be granted to convey them to Guadaloupe, where they ſhall remain on parole until exchanged.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. V. The ſick and wounded ſhall be treated with humanity, and all poſſible aſſiſtance given to them.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. VI. All papers of the French delegation ſhall be given up to the delegate.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Philipſburgh, 24th March, 1801.

(Signed) Breſſon, delegate.
Bannier, commandant of military.

(Signed) Thomas Trigge, lieutenant-general.
J. T. Duckworth, rear-admiral.

Leviathan, St. Thomas, March 30.

Sir,

Having had the honour of ſtating to you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, the ſucceſsful proceedings of this armament to the 27th, I have now farther to add, that we arrived off this iſland at daylight of the 28th, having previouſly concerted with the general the arrangement for landing at Black Point Bay, about three miles to the weſtward of the town; but from the wind blowing off the land we were not able to obtain anchorage till noon, when I directed captain Bradby, in the Andromeda, with the Alexandria tender, to place themſelves as cloſe to the beach as the water would admit to cover the landing; which ſervice was ably executed: I alſo ordered the Southampton, Diana, and Amphitrite (which had been previouſly directed here to prevent ſuccour from being thrown in), to anchor cloſe off the

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town, to be in readineſs to attack the forts, if requiſite. This ſervice performed, and the troops all ready to land, lieutenant-general Trigge and ſelf were of opinion it would promote his majeſty's ſervice to ſummon the iſland, which was ſent by brigadier-general Maitland, and captain King, of the Leviathan, when a capitulation was agreed on for this iſland, St. John's, and its dependencies (with the delay only of the governor being p rmitted to ſend officers to aſcertain that our force was as formidable as repreſented); and yeſterday morning we took poſſeſſion of the forts, &c. ſince when I have been conſtantly employed in landing a garriſon, and forming temporary regulations, to move for our next object, Santa Cruz, this evening, that my time will not admit of my giving their lordſhips an exact detail of the veſſels in harbour; but there was one man-of war brig, of 18 guns, which appears a very fine veſſel, and fit for his majeſty's ſervice. Herewith I ſend a copy of the capitulation. This, with my other diſpatch of the 27th, I forward by my firſt lieutenant, Charles Marſhall Gregory, an officer of great merit and activity, who has been recently employed as acting captain of the Amphitrite, and to whom I muſt refer their lordſhips for farther particulars; and I have the honour to be, ſir, &c. &c. &c.

J. T. Duckworth.

Capitulation of the Iſland of St. Thomas.

Art. I. The iſlands of St. Thomas, St. John, and their dependencies, are hereby placed under the protection of his Britannic majeſty, until, by a concluſion of peace, it ſhall be ſettled whether they are to be Daniſh or Engliſh property.

Anſwer.—The iſlands of St. Thomas, St. John, and their dependencies, muſt be ſurrendered to the forces of his Britannic majeſty on the conditions which follow.

Art. II. Military honours are to be ſhown by the ſurrender. The officers to keep and continue to carry their ſwords.

Anſwer.—Agreed.

Art. III. All inhabitants of the ſaid iſlands are to enjoy the fulleſt ſecurity for their perſons and property and other rights, as well as a free exerciſe of religion.

Anſwer.—All Daniſh inhabitants, and the ſubjects of the united ſtates of America, ſhall enjoy the fulleſt ſecurity for their perſons and properties, as well as the free exerciſe of their religion, provided they do not endeavour colluſively to cover the property of the enemies of Great Britain and Ireland. By property is to be underſtood all goods and merchandize now on ſhore.

Art. IV. Arms and ammunition to be delivered by a commiſſion compoſed of officers of both parties; alſo the magazines and proviſions, and what elſe may be found in the fort to-day, according to returns to be drawn up.

Anſwer.—Agreed.

Art. V. All Daniſh officers, the garriſon, naval officers and ſailors, to be conducted conveniently and ſafely to their native country, and thoſe that might deſire to proceed *via* America, or elſewhere, to be provided with proper paſſports.

Anſwer.—The garriſon muſt be conſidered as priſoners of war, and will be conveyed to Europe as ſpeedily as poſſible, and every indulgence ſhewn them.

Art.

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Art. VI. No military to be quartered in houſes, but in barracks and decent rooms to be aſſigned by the burgher council, and a commiſſion appointed to that end.

Anſwer.—Agreed.

Art. VII. The Daniſh laws and ordinances to remain in force. All courts and juridical offices to be occupied by the preſent officers. In caſe no appeal can take place to the high court of juſtice at Copenhagen, one is to be eſtabliſhed here by the Engliſh government, to conſiſt of three of the moſt able candidates in law, and two reſpectable citizens, acquainted with the Daniſh language.

Anſwer.—The Daniſh laws and ordinances will remain in force as at preſent; but the perſons filling civil offices muſt be ſubject to the approbation of their excellencies the commanders-in-chief. In the event of appeal from the courts here, the appeal to lie to his Britannic majeſty in council.

Art. VIII. The king's and public treaſures, all public book-keepings and accounts, archives, and protocols, remain unmoleſted, under the hands of the reſpective officers, for mutual ſecurity and uſe.

Anſwer.—All property belonging to the king or the government muſt be given up to his Britannic majeſty; and all public papers and records be ſubmitted to the inſpection of the Britiſh, and the records and papers will afterwards be allowed to remain in the proper offices.

Art. IX. His majeſty the king of Denmark having advanced loans to the planters, the ſaid planters continue to pay off according to the method regulated unto his ſaid majeſty the king of Denmark (who retains the right of mortgage on the ſaid eſtates), with the exception that the proprietors, in conſideration of precedent unfavourable commercial conjunctures, and the preſent circumſtances, make no payments this year upon the royal loan which has been effected for the benefit of the planters.

Anſwer.—Anſwered in the laſt article. But with reſpect to the payments to be made upon the loan advanced by the king of Denmark to the planters, it is agreed to be left to the determination of the king of Great Britain and Ireland in council how they are to be made and applied.

Art. X. No inhabitant ſhall be compelled to carry arms, or perform duty, when he has made his oath of neutrality.

Anſwer.—Agreed to; but they will be required to take an oath of allegiance to the Britiſh government, expreſſing that they will not, either openly or ſecretly, do any thing hoſtile to the Britiſh government.

Art. XI. The Americans ſhall be permitted, without conſtraint, to export the produce of the iſlands, and provide them with neceſſaries; the inhabitants alſo to ſhip to America.

Anſwer.—Theſe colonies muſt trade under the ſame laws as govern the Britiſh Weſt India iſlands.

Art. XII. A ſecret and ſeparate convention to permit the inhabitants from the neighbouring iſlands, or from the main, to trade hither, in order to provide the country with freſh proviſions.

Anſwer.—The affirmative to this propoſition muſt depend upon the deciſion of his majeſty the king of Great Britain and Ireland.

Art. XIII. The free coloured people of this iſland ſhall be protected

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tected and regarded as heretofore under the Danish government, and they shall not be forced to do any military duty.

Answer.—The Danish free coloured people will be protected as heretofore, and will not be forced to do military duty; but they must take the oath of allegiance conformably to the tenth article.

Art. XIV. The preliminary article, on which this proposed capitulation depends, is, that the report of the officers sent on board of the fleet, ascertains the number of British troops to be 3000 men at least.

Answer.—His excellency the Danish governor is not expected to sign the capitulation until the return of the officers he has sent to see the British troops.

Art. XV. In the general claim of Danish and neutral property to be respected as belonging to the lawful owners, is also comprehended the vessels and all property afloat in this harbour, or what might arrive during the time the Danish colonies may remain in possession of his Britannic majesty.

Answered by the reply to the third proposition.

Additional.

All the forts, military posts, and vessels of war, must be given up as soon as this capitulation is ratified by the commander-in-chief.

St. Thomas, the 28th of March, 1801.

(Signed) C. W. Von Schotten.
Fred Maitland, brigadier-general.
E. D. King, captain royal navy.

(Ratified) Thomas Trigge, lieutenant-general.
J. T. Duckworth, rear-admiral.

Leviathan, off Christianstadt, Santa-Cruz, April 2.

Sir,

My letters of the 27th and 30th ult. (of which I now transmit duplicates) having given you information for the lords commissioners of the admiralty of our fortunate and successful proceedings in the execution of their lordships orders to the surrender of St. Thomas's (with the deviation of venturing to attack St. Martin's), and my intentions of leaving St. Thomas's for Santa Cruz that evening, the 30th, I now have the farther pleasure to acquaint you that we were off the town of Christianstadt at daylight of the 21st, and having formed the arrangements for landing, and sounded to the eastward of the town, to ascertain that it could be safely effected, lieutenant-general Trigge and myself thought proper to send a summons similar to that of St. Bartholomew: upon which confidential officers were sent off by the governor-general Lindemann, and the accompanying capitulation entered into, the whole of which, I hope, will meet with his majesty's and their lordships approbation; and as I consider an expeditious account thereof, under the present circumstances with the northern powers, may be very desirable, I dispatch the Fanny hired armed brig, and must defer giving any detail of the vessels in the ports, as I have not yet been able to get any exact list Captain Ekins, of the Amphitrite, having been much reduced from a fever, and by his exertions again brought on violently his complaint, I have thought it humanity to intrust that valuable officer with my dispatches, and beg leave to refer their lordships to him for any farther particulars.

I in-

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I intend giving an acting order to captain John Miller Garnier, of the Hawke, and my firſt lieutenant, George William Blamey, an officer whoſe exertions in the preſent expedition entitle him to my warmeſt ſupport.

I ſhould feel very remiſs were I to cloſe this without mentioning to their lordſhips the aid I have received from my captain E. D. King, in this haraſſing ſervice; and I have the honour to be,

Sir, &c. &c. &c.

J. T. Duckworth.

Articles of Capitulation propoſed by Governor-General Lindemann to their Excellencies Lieutenant-General Thomas Trigge, and Rear-Admiral John Thomas Duckworth, Commanders-in-Chief of his Britannic Majeſty's Forces.

Art. I. The garriſon ſhall evacuate the forts, and all the troops of the iſland give up their reſpective quarters. They ſhall march out of the ſaid forts with their arms and baggage, and all the honours of war, with two field-pieces, colours flying, drums beating; but previous to the evacuation they will diſcharge all their guns, and the officers will keep their ſide-arms.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. II. Proper ſhips will be provided at the expenſe of his Britannic majeſty to convey directly to Copenhagen all his Daniſh majeſty's officers of the army, navy, and of the civil eſtabliſhment, with their domeſtics and baggage, and alſo to convey the garriſon and ſeamen; but ſhould any of thoſe officers wiſh to go to America in their way home, they will be provided with paſſports to that effect.

Anſwer.—The garriſon and ſeamen muſt be conſidered as priſoners of war, and will be conveyed to Europe as ſpeedily as poſſible; but ſuch officers as may deſire it will be allowed paſſports to go by the way of America, on their parole of honour not to ſerve until regularly exchanged; and muſt depart from the iſland in the courſe of two months from the ſigning of this capitulation.

Art. III. Such of his majeſty's officers who ſhould wiſh to remain on the iſland are to be at liberty ſo to do.

Anſwer.—The officers of the army and navy cannot be permitted to remain on the iſland.

Art. IV. All churches and religious congregations in the iſland ſhall be ſupported in their reſpective rights and privileges.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. V. The Daniſh laws, and the ſpecial ordinances of this country, ſhall remain in ful' and uncontrolled vigour and execution as hitherto, and juſtice be adminiſtered by the perſons now in office: the appeals from the upper court to go as uſual in the laſt inſtance to the high court of juſtice in Copenhagen, or to a high court to be nominated by the Britiſh governor, to conſiſt of three able Daniſh lawyers, and two reſpectable inhabitants who underſtand the Daniſh language, and to be preſided by the Britiſh governor.

Anſwer.—The Daniſh laws and ordinances will remain in force as at preſent, but the perſons filling civil offices muſt be ſubject to our approbation; and in the event of appeal from the courts here, the appeal muſt be made to his Britannic majeſty in council.

Art.

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Art. VI. All the inhabitants of this iſland, preſent and abſent, of every denomination, to remain in full and uncontrolled poſſeſſion of their property of every deſcription; and they ſhall meet with no impediment in the adminiſtration thereof.

Anſwer.—The property of all inhabitants will be reſpected, except the French, Spaniſh, and Dutch, who have become reſidents ſince the 1ſt of January, 1794.

Art. VII. Abſent officers in his Daniſh majeſty's ſervice, as well as other abſentees, to be maintained in the poſſeſſion of their property, which ſhall be adminiſtered by their attorneys.

Anſwer.—The officers in his Daniſh majeſty's ſervice, and other abſentees, except French, Spaniſh, and Dutch, as ſpecified in the aforegoing article, provided they are not ſerving thoſe governments, ſhall continue poſſeſſed of their landed property, which ſhall be adminiſtered by their attorneys. But if any perſon, reſident in Denmark, ſhall have warehouſes or other depôts of goods in the iſland, they muſt be ſequeſtered until his Britannic majeſty's pleaſure ſhall be known reſpecting them.

Art. VIII. No inhabitant ſhall be compelled, on any pretext whatſoever, to bear arms againſt his Daniſh majeſty, or any other power, or perform any military duty of any denomination. Thoſe who may wiſh to remain on the iſland ſhall ſwear to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality; and thoſe who may wiſh to quit the iſland ſhall be allowed to diſpoſe of their property, or to appoint attorneys for the adminiſtration of the ſame.

Anſwer.—Granted; but they will be required to take an oath of allegiance to the Britiſh government, expreſſing that they will not, either openly or ſecretly, do any thing hoſtile to the Britiſh government. No Frenchman, Dutchman, or Spaniard, who has become a reſident ſince the 1ſt of January, 1794, can be permitted to remain on the iſland.

Art. IX. The free people of colour ſhall continue to enjoy their freedom and property, and in every reſpect to be conſidered on the ſame footing as the other inhabitants, as ſtipulated in the eighth article.

Anſwer.—Granted; on the terms ſpecified in the anſwer to the eighth article.

Art. X. No officers nor ſoldiers to be billeted on the inhabitants; every aſſiſtance ſhall be given to procure proper quarters.

Anſwer. — Granted; provided proper quarters are procured.

Art. XI. The inhabitants concerned in his majeſty's loan ſhall not be compelled to make any payments on account of the ſame, as long as the colony continues ſubjected to his Britannic majeſty.

Anſwer.—The inhabitants concerned in his Daniſh majeſty's loan muſt make their payments to his Britannic majeſty as they become due, whilſt the colony remains under the Britiſh government.

Art. XII. All public books, regiſters, archives of government, the burgher council, and all other public offices, ſhall, as well as private property, be held ſacred and unmoleſted in the reſpective offices, under the care of the preſent officers.

Anſwer.—All public books and records, of whatever denomination, muſt

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muſt be ſubmitted to our examination, but will afterwards be allowed to remain in the proper offices.

Art. XIII. The ports of the colony ſhall be opened to all American veſſels, who ſhall be permitted to import proviſions and ſupplies, and to export produce; the inhabitants ſhall enjoy the ſame liberty of importation and exportation in their own veſſels.

Anſwer.—The ſame indulgences will be granted to all American veſſels, as in the iſlands under his Britannic majeſty's government. The inhabitants taking the oath of allegiance will enjoy the ſame privileges, with reſpect to trade, as in the Britiſh colonies.

Done on board his Britannic majeſty's ſhip Leviathan, off St. Croix, the 31ſt of March, 1801.

(Signed) Thos. Trigge, lieutenant-general.
J. T. Duckworth, rear-admiral.
(Signed) J. C. Mot, chamberlain to his Daniſh majeſty.
S. Krauſe, major of infantry.
(Ratified) W. A. Lindemann, governor-general over the Daniſh Weſt India colonies.

Secret.

Art. XIV. As it is impoſſible for the inhabitants to procure freſh proviſions and certain indiſpenſable ſupplies for their eſtates, but from the Spaniards, either from the Main or Porto Rico, the ports of St. Croix ſhall be opened to all Spaniſh veſſels bringing ſuch ſupplies.

Anſwer. — Granted; until his Britannic majeſty's pleaſure ſhall be known.

(Signed) Thos. Trigge, lieutenant-general.
J. T. Duckworth, rear-admiral.
(Signed) J. C. Mot, chamberlain to his Daniſh majeſty.
(Signed) S. Krauſe, major of infantry.

London Gazette, June 2, 1801.

Extract from a Diſpatch, addreſſed to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, from Lieutenant-General Trigge, Commander-in-Chief of his Majeſty's Forces in the Leeward and Windward Charibbee Iſlands.

Martinique, April 27.

Sir,

I loſe not a moment in having the honour to communicate the information which has been juſt now received, of the iſlands of St. Euſtatius and Saba having ſurrendered, on the 21ſt inſtant, to a detachment of the 3d regiment of foot, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Blunt, and captain Perkins, of his majeſty's ſhip Arab.

The encloſed extract of a letter from Mr. preſident Thomſon, commanding at St. Chriſtopher's, ordering lieutenant-colonel Blunt to proceed on that ſervice, and of lieutenant-colonel Blunt's official letter, acquainting me with the reſult, will explain to your ſatisfaction all ſuch circumſtances as you may wiſh to be informed of.

I have only to add, that the officers charged with the conducting of the ſervice, have acquitted themſelves

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ſelves with ſuch judgement and promptitude as to merit and receive my entire approbation.

I have the honour to encloſe to you herewith, copy of the terms on which theſe iſlands were ſurrendered. and have been placed under his majeſty's government; but am unable to tranſmit by this opportunity the return of ordnance, as there is not ſufficient time at preſent to have it made out correctly.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) Tho. Trigge,
lieutenant-general.

Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-Colonel Blunt, of the 3d Regiment of Foot, to Lieutenant-General Trigge; dated St. Euſtatius, 22d April.

I have the honour to encloſe an order addreſſed to me by the preſident of St. Kitt's, in conſequence of which I embarked on board his majeſty's ſhip Arab, captain Perkins, and an armed ſchooner, his prize, 100 men of the Buffs, with lieutenant Brown, and ten men of the royal artillery. We ſummoned the iſland of St. Euſtatius on the morning of the 21ſt, which ſurrendered by capitulation; the terms of which accompany this, and I hope will not be diſapproved by your excellency. They had no proviſions in the garriſon, and very little in poſſeſſion of the inhabitants. From the extent of the batteries it will not be in my power to forward, by this opportunity, lieutenant Brown's report of the ordnance.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) Rich. Blunt,
Lieutenant-colonel Buffs.

Extract of a Letter from the Preſident of St. Kitt's to Lieutenant-Colonel Blunt, of the 3d Regiment of Foot; dated Baſſeterre, 20th April.

I have juſt received information that the iſland of St. Euſtatius was evacuated by the French on the 16th inſtant.

Under theſe circumſtances, and conſidering that a favourable opportunity preſents itſelf to acquire the poſſeſſion of that iſland, and thereby give ſecurity to the iſlands in its neighbourhood, and recover a number of negroes who have eloped from hence, and which may be loſt by delay; you will therefore embark with 100 men of the Buffs, on board his majeſty's ſhip Arab, captain Perkins, and take poſſeſſion of the iſland of St. Euſtatius, which you will retain until his excellency general Trigge's pleaſure thereon be known.

I have, &c.
(Signed) Rob. Thomſon.

[Here follow the articles of capitulation.]

London Gazette, Auguſt 1, 1801.

Copy of a Letter from Rear-Admiral Sir James Saumarez, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated on Board his majeſty's ſhip Cæſar, at Gibraltar, the 6th July.

Sir,

I have to requeſt you will be pleaſed to inform my lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that, conformably to my letter of yeſterday's date, I ſtood through the Straits, with his majeſty' ſquardon under my orders, with the intention of attacking

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attacking three French line of battle ships and a frigate, that I had received information of being at anchor off Algeziras: on opening Cabareta Point, I found the ships lay at a considerable distance from the enemy's batteries, and having a leading wind up to them, afforded every reasonable hope of success in the attack.

I had previously directed captain Hood, in the Venerable, from his experience and knowledge of the anchorage, to lead the squadron, which he executed with his accustomed gallantry; and although it was not intended he should anchor, he found himself under the necessity so to do, from the wind's failing (a circumstance so much to be apprehended in this country), and to which circumstance I have to regret the want of success in this well-intended enterprise. Captain Stirling anchored opposite to the inner ship of the enemy, and brought the Pompée to action in the most spirited and gallant manner, which was also followed by the commanders of every ship in the squadron.

Captains Darby and Ferris, owing to light winds, were prevented for a considerable time from coming into action; at length the Hannibal getting a breeze, captain Ferris had the most favourable prospect of being alongside one of the enemy's ships, when the Hannibal unfortunately took the ground, and I am extremely concerned to acquaint their lordships, that, after having made every possible effort with this ship and the Audacious, to cover her from the enemy, I was under the necessity to make sail, being at the time only three cables length from one of the enemy's batteries.

My thanks are particularly due to all the captains, officers, and men under my orders; and although their endeavours have not been crowned with success, I trust the thousands of spectators from his majesty's garrison, and also the surrounding coast, will do justice to their valour and intrepidity, which was not to be checked by the fire from the numerous batteries, however formidable, that surround Algeziras.

I feel it incumbent upon me to state to their lordships the great merits of captain Brenton, of the Cæsar, whose cool judgment and intrepid conduct I will venture to pronounce were never surpassed. I also beg leave to recommend to their lordships notice, my flag lieutenant, Mr. Phillip Damaresq, who has served with me from the commencement of this war, and is a most deserving officer. Mr. Lamborne and the other lieutenants are also entitled to great praise, as well as captain Maxwell of the marines, and the officers of his corps serving on board the Cæsar.

The enemy's ships consisted of two of 84 guns, and one of 74, with a large frigate: two of the former are aground, and the whole are rendered totally unserviceable.

I cannot close this letter without rendering the most ample justice to the great bravery of captain Ferris; the loss in his ship must have been very considerable both in officers and men; but I have the satisfaction to be informed that his majesty has not lost so valuable an officer.

I have the honour to be, &c.

James Saumarez.

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The hon. captain Dundas, of his majeſty's polacre the Calpe, made his veſſel as uſeful as poſſible, and kept up a ſpirited fire on one of the enemy's batteries. I have alſo to expreſs my approbation of lieutenant Janverin, commander of the gun-boats, who having joined me with intelligence, ſerved as a volunteer on board the Cæſar.

Copy of a Letter from Rear-Admiral Sir J. Saumarez; dated on board his Majeſty's Ship Cæſar, Gibraltar Mole, July 10, to Evan Nepean, Eſq.

Sir,

I herewith encloſe the copy of a letter from captain Ferris, of his majeſty's late ſhip Hannibal, which I requeſt you will pleaſe to lay before their lordſhips; and I have only to expreſs my deep regret that his well-meant endeavours to bring his ſhip to cloſe action ſhould have occaſioned ſo ſevere a loſs.

J. Saumarez.

Algeziras, July 7.

Sir,

I have little more to tell you of the fate of his majeſty's ſhip Hannibal, than yourſelf muſt have obſerved, only, that from the number of batteries and ſhips, gun-boats, &c. we had to encounter, our guns ſoon got knocked up; and I found it was impoſſible to do any thing either for the preſervation of the ſhip or for the good of the ſervice, our boats, ſails, rigging, and ſprings, being all ſhot away; and ſo many killed and wounded, which will appear by the annexed liſt, I thought it prudent to ſtrike, and thereby preſerve the lives of the brave men that remained.

Had I been ſucceſsful in the view before me, previous to the ſhip's taking the ground, my praiſes of the conduct of my officers and ſhip's company could not have exceeded their merits; but I have, notwithſtanding, the ſatisfaction to ſay, that every order was obſerved and carried into execution with that promptitude and alacrity becoming Britiſh officers and ſeamen.

I am, &c.

S. Ferris.

Rear-admiral ſir James Saumarez.

London Gazette Extraordinary, Auguſt 3, 1801.

Admiralty-Office, Auguſt 3.

Lieutenant Philip Dumareſq, of his majeſty's ſhip Cæſar, arrived laſt night with diſpatches from rear-admiral ſir James Saumarez, bart. of which the following are copies:

Cæſar, off Cape Trafalgar, July 13.

Sir,

It has pleaſed the Almighty to crown the exertions of this ſquadron with the moſt deciſive ſucceſs over the enemies of their country.

The three French line of battle ſhips, diſabled in the action of the 6th inſtant off Algeziras, were, on the 8th, reinforced by a ſquadron of five Spaniſh line of battle ſhips, under the command of Don Juan Joaquin de Moreno, and a French ſhip of 74 guns, wearing a broad pendant, beſides three frigates, and an incredible number of gun-boats and other veſſels, and got under ſail yeſterday morning, together with his

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his majeſty's late ſhip Hannibal, which they had ſucceeded in getting off the ſhoal on which ſhe ſtruck.

I almoſt deſpaired of having a ſufficient force in readineſs to oppoſe to ſuch numbers, but, through the great exertions of captain Brenton, the officers and men belonging to the Cæſar, the ſhip was in readineſs to warp out of the Mole yeſterday morning, and got under weigh immediately after with all the ſquadron, except the Pompée, which ſhip had not had time to get in her maſts.

Confiding in the zeal and intrepidity of the officers and men I had the happineſs to ſerve with, I determined, if poſſible, to obſtruct the paſſage of this very powerful force to Cadiz. Late in the evening I obſerved the enemy's ſhips to have cleared Cabareta point, and at eight I bore up with the ſquadron to ſtand after them. His majeſty's ſhip Superb being ſtationed ahead of the Cæſar, I directed captain Keats to make ſail and attack the ſternmoſt ſhips in the enemy's rear, uſing his endeavours to keep in ſhore of them. At eleven the Superb opened her fire cloſe to the enemy's ſhips, and on the Cæſar's coming up, and preparing to engage a three-decker that had hauled her wind, ſhe was perceived to have taken fire, and the flames having communicated to a ſhip to leeward of her, both were ſeen in a blaze, and preſented a moſt awful ſight. No poſſibility exiſting of offering the leaſt aſſiſtance in ſo diſtreſſing a ſituation, the Cæſar paſſed to cloſe with the ſhip engaged by the Superb, but by the cool and determined fire kept upon her, which muſt ever reflect the higheſt credit on that ſhip, the enemy's ſhip was completely ſilenced, and ſoon after hauled down her colours.

The Venerable and Spencer having at this time come up, I bore up after the enemy, who were carrying a preſs of ſail, ſtanding out of the Straits, and loſt ſight of them during the night. It blew exceſſively hard till daylight, and in the morning the only ſhips in company were the Venerable, and Thames ahead of the Cæſar, and one of the French ſhips at ſome diſtance from them ſtanding towards the ſhoals of Conil, beſides the Spencer aſtern, coming up.

All the ſhips immediately made ſail with a freſh breeze; but, as we approached, the wind ſuddenly failing, the Venerable was alone able to bring her to action, which captain Hood did in the moſt gallant manner, and had nearly ſilenced the French ſhip, when his mainmaſt (which had been before wounded) was unfortunately ſhot away, and it coming nearly calm, the enemy's ſhip was enabled to get off without any poſſibility of following her.

The higheſt praiſe is due to captain Hood, the officers and men of the Venerable, for their ſpirit and gallantry in the action, which entitled them to better ſucceſs. The French ſhip was an 84, with additional guns on the gunwale.

This action was ſo near the ſhore, that the Venerable ſtruck on one of the ſhoals, but was ſoon after got off and taken in tow by the Thames, but with the loſs of all her maſts.

The enemy's ſhips are now in ſight to the weſtward, ſtanding in for Cadiz. The Superb and Audacious, with the captured ſhip, are alſo in ſight, with the Carlotta Portugueſe frigate, commanded by captain

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tain Crawfurd Duncan, who very handſomely came out with the ſquadron, and has been of the greateſt aſſiſtance to captain Keats, in ſtaying by the enemy's ſhip captured by the Superb.

I am proceeding with the ſquadron for Roſier Bay, and ſhall proceed, the moment the ſhips are refitted, to reſume my ſtation.

No praiſes that I can beſtow are adequate to the merits of the officers and ſhips' companies of all the ſquadron, particularly for the unremitted exertions in refitting the ſhips at Gibraltar, to which, in a great degree, is to be aſcribed the ſucceſs of the ſquadron againſt the enemy.

Although the Spencer and Audacious had not the good fortune to partake of this action, I have no doubt of their exertion, had they come up in time to cloſe with the enemy's ſhips.

My thanks are alſo due to captain Hollis of the Thames, and to the hon. captain Dundas of the Calpe, whoſe aſſiſtance was particularly uſeful to captain Keats in ſecuring the enemy's ſhip, and enabling the Superb to ſtand after the ſquadron.

I herewith encloſe the names of the enemy's ſhips.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. Saumarez.

Evan Nepean, eſq.

Liſt of the Spaniſh Squadron that arrived at Cadiz from Ferrol, on the 25th of April, under the Command of Don Joaquin de Moreno (Lieutenant-General), as Vice-Admiral, and proceeded to Algeziras Bay, the 9th of July.

Real Carlos, of 112 guns, captain don J. Eiquerra.

San Hermenegildo, of 112 guns, captain don J Emparan.

San Fernando, of 94 guns, captain don J. Malina.

Argonaut, of 80 guns, captain don J. Harrera.

San Auguſtin, of 74 guns, captain don R. Jopete.

San Antonio, of 74 guns, under French colours, taken by the Superb.

Wanton French lugger, of 12 guns.

The admiral's ſhip, the Real Carlos, and the San Hermenegildo, were the two ſhips that took fire and blew up.

(Signed) J. Saumarez.

Cæſar, off Cape Trafalgar,
Sir, *July* 14.

I herewith encloſe, for their lordſhips further information, the ſtatement I have received from captain Keats, to whom the greateſt praiſe is due for his gallant conduct on the ſervice alluded to.

Captain Hood's merits are held in too high eſtimation to receive additional luſtre from any praiſes I can beſtow; but I only do juſtice to my own feelings when I obſerve, that in no inſtance have I known ſuperior bravery to that diſplayed by him on this occaſion.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. Saumarez.

Evan Nepean, eſq.

Superb, off Cape Trefalgar,
Sir, *July* 13.

Purſuant to your directions, to ſtate the particulars of the Superb's ſervices laſt night, I have the honour to inform you, that, in conſequence of your directions to make ſail up to, and engage the ſternmoſt of the enemy's ſhips, at half paſt eleven I found myſelf abreaſt of a Spaniſh three-

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three-decked ſhip (the Real Carlos, as appears by report of ſome ſurvivors), which, having brought in one with two other ſhips nearly line abreaſt, I opened my fire upon at not more than three cables' length; this evidently produced a good effect, as well in this ſhip as the others abreaſt of her, which ſoon began firing on each other, and at times on the Superb.

In about a quarter of an hour I perceived the ſhip I was engaging, and which had loſt her fore-topmaſt, to be on fire, upon which we inſtantly ceaſed to moleſt her, and I proceeded on to the ſhip next at hand, which proved to be the San Antonio, of 74 guns and 730 men, commanded by the chef de diviſion Le Rey, under French colours, wearing a broad pendant, and manned nearly equally with French and Spaniſh ſeamen, and which, after ſome action (the chef being wounded), ſtruck her colours.

I learn from the very few ſurvivors of the ſhips that caught fire and blew up (who, in an open boat, reached the Superb at the time ſhe was taking poſſeſſion of the San Antonio), that, in the confuſion of the action, the Hermenegildo (a firſt rate alſo), miſtaking the Real Carlos for an enemy, ran on board her, and ſhared her melancholy fate.

Services of this nature cannot well be expected to be performed without ſome loſs; but though we have to lament that lieutenant E. Waller, and 14 ſeamen and marines, have been wounded, moſt of them ſeverely, ſtill there is reaſon to rejoice that this is the extent of our loſs.

I received able and active aſſiſtance from Mr. Samuel Jackſon, the firſt lieutenant; and it is my duty to repreſent to you, that the officers of all deſcriptions, ſeamen and marines, conducted themſelves with the greateſt ſteadineſs and gallantry.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) R. G. Keats.

Sir James Saumarez, bart.
rear-admiral of the blue,
&c.

London Gazette, Aug. 18, 1801.

Admiralty-Office, Aug. 18.

Copy of a Letter from Lord Viſcount Nelſon, K. B. Vice-Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Eſq.; dated on board the Meduſa, off Boulogne, Auguſt 16.

Sir,

Having judged it proper to attempt bringing off the enemy's flotilla, moored in the front of Boulogne, I directed the attack to be made by four diviſions of boats for boarding, under the command of captains Somerville, Cotgrave, Jones, and Parker; and a diviſion of howitzer-boats, under captain Conn. The boats put off from the Meduſa at half paſt eleven o'clock laſt night in the beſt poſſible order, and before one o'clock this morning the firing began, and I had, from the judgment of the officers, and the zeal and gallantry of every man, the moſt perfect confidence of complete ſucceſs; but the darkneſs of the night, with the tide and half tide, ſeparated the diviſions, and from all not arriving at the ſame happy moment with captain Parker, is to be attributed the failure of ſucceſs; and I beg to be underſtood, that not the ſmalleſt blame attaches itſelf to any perſon; for although the diviſions did not arrive together, yet each (except the fourth diviſion,

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which could not be got up before day) made a ſucceſsful attack on that part of the enemy they fell in with, and actually took poſſeſſion of many brigs and flats, and cut their cables; but many of them being aground, and the moment of the battle's ceaſing on board them, the veſſels were filled with vollies upon vollies of muſketry, the enemy being perfectly regardleſs of their own men, who muſt have ſuffered equally with us; it was therefore impoſſible to remain on board, even to burn them: but allow me to ſay, who have ſeen much ſervice this war, that more determined perſevering courage I never witneſſed, and that nothing but the impoſſibility of being ſucceſsful, from the cauſes I have mentioned, could have prevented me from having to congratulate their lordſhips; but although in value the loſs of ſuch gallant and good men is incalculable, yet, in point of numbers, it has fallen ſhort of my expectations. I muſt alſo beg leave to ſtate, that greater zeal and ardent deſire to diſtinguiſh themſelves by an attack on the enemy was never ſhown than by all the captains, officers, and crews, of all the different deſcriptions of veſſels under my command.

The commanders of the Hunter and Greyhound revenue cutters went in their boats in the moſt handſome and gallant manner to the attack. Amongſt the many brave men wounded, I have with the deepeſt regret to place the name of my gallant good friend and able aſſiſtant captain Edward T. Parker; alſo my flag lieutenant Frederic Langford, who has ſerved with me many years: they were both wounded in attempting to board the French commodore. To captain Gore, of the Meduſa, I feel the higheſt obligations; and when their lordſhips look at the loſs of the Meduſa on this occaſion, they will agree with me, that the honour of my flag, and the cauſe of their king and country, could never have been placed in more gallant hands. Captain Bedford, of the Leyden, with captain Gore, very handſomely volunteered their ſervices to ſerve under a maſter and commander; but I did not think it fair to the latter, and I only mention it to mark the zeal of thoſe officers. From the nature of the attack only a few priſoners were made; a lieutenant, eight ſeamen, and eight ſoldiers, are all they brought off. Herewith I ſend the reports of the ſeveral commanders of diviſions, and a return of killed and wounded.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Nelſon and Bronte.

P. S. Captain Somerville was the ſenior maſter and commander employed.

Eugenie, off Boulogne,

Aug. 16.

My lord,

In obedience to your lordſhip's direction to ſtate the proceedings of the firſt diviſion of boats, which you did me the honour to place under my command, for the purpoſe of attacking the enemy's flotilla in the bay of Boulogne, I beg leave to acquaint you, that, after leaving the Meduſa laſt night, I found myſelf, on getting on ſhore, carried conſiderably, by the rapidity of the tide, to the eaſtward of the above-mentioned place; and finding that I was not likely to reach it in the order preſcribed, I gave directions for the boats to caſt each other off. By ſo doing, I was enabled to get to the enemy's flotilla a little before the dawn of day, and in the beſt order poſſible attacked, cloſe to the pier

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head, a brig, which, after a ſharp conteſt, I carried. Previous to ſo doing, her cables were cut; but I was prevented from towing her out by her being ſecured with a chain, and, in conſequence of a very heavy fire of muſketry and grape-ſhot that was directed at us from the ſhore, three luggers, and another brig within half piſtol ſhot; and not ſeeing the leaſt proſpect of being able to get her off, I was obligated to abandon her, and puſh out of the bay, as it was then completely daylight.

The undaunted and reſolute behaviour of the officers, ſeamen, and marines, was unparalleled; and I have to lament the loſs of ſeveral of thoſe brave men, a liſt of whom I encloſe you herewith.

I have the honour to be, &c.

P. Somerville.

Lord viſcount Nelſon, K.B.
vice-admiral of the Blue,
&c. &c. &c.

Meduſa, off Boulogne, Auguſt 16.

My lord,

After the complete arrangement which was made, the perfect good underſtanding and regularity with which the boats you did me the honour to put under my command left the Meduſa, I have an anxious feeling to explain to your lordſhip the failure of our enterpriſe. that, on its outſet, promiſed every ſucceſs.

Agreeable to your lordſhip's inſtructions, I proceeded with the ſecond diviſion of the boats under my direction (the half of which were under the direction of lieutenant Williams, ſenior of the Meduſa) to attack the part of the enemy's flotilla appointed for me, and at half paſt twelve had the good fortune to find myſelf cloſe to them, when I ordered lieutenant Williams, with his ſubdiviſions, to puſh on to attack the veſſels to the northward of me, while I, with the others, run alongſide a large brig off the Mole Head, wearing the commodore's pendant. It is at this moment I feel myſelf at a loſs for words to do juſtice to the officers and crew of the Meduſa who were in the boat with me, and to Lieutenant Langford, the officers and crew of the ſame ſhip, who nobly ſeconded us in the barge, until all her crew were killed or wounded; and to the honourable Mr. Cathcart, who commanded the Meduſa's cutter, and ſuſtained the attack with the greateſt intrepidity, until the deſperate ſituation I was left in obliged me to call him to the aſſiſtance of the ſufferers in my boat.

The boats were no ſooner alongſide than we attempted to board; but a very ſtrong netting traced up to her lower yards, baffled all our endeavours, and an inſtantaneous diſcharge of her guns and ſmall arms, from about 200 ſoldiers on her gunwale, knocked myſelf; Mr. Kirby, the maſter of the Meduſa, Mr. Gore, a midſhipman, with two thirds of the crew, upon our backs into the boat, all either killed or wounded deſperately; the barge and cutter being on the outſide, ſheered off with the tide; but the flat boat in which I was, hung alongſide, and, as there was not an officer or man left to govern her, muſt have fallen into the hands of the enemy, had not Mr. Cathcart taken her in tow and carried her off.

Mr. Williams led his ſubdiviſion up to the enemy with the moſt intrepid gallantry, took one lugger, and attacked a brig, while his crews, I am concerned to ſay, ſuffered

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equally with ourſelves, nearly the whole of his boat's crew were killed or wounded; lieutenant Pelley, who commanded the Meduſa's launch, and the honourable Mr. Maitland, midſhipman, were ſeverely wounded; and Mr. William Briſtow, maſter's mate, in the Meduſa's cutter, under lieutenant Stewart, was killed.

I now feel it my duty to aſſure your lordſhip, that nothing could ſurpaſs the zeal, courage, and readineſs, of every deſcription of officer and man under command; and I am ſorry that my words fall ſhort of their merits, though we could not accompliſh the object we were ordered to.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) Edward T. Parker.

Lord viſcount Nelſon, vice-admiral of the Blue, commander-in-chief, &c. &c.

Gannet, Auguſt 16.

My lord,

On the night of the 15th inſtant, the third diviſion of boats which I had the honour to command, aſſembled on board his majeſty's ſhip York, agreeable to your Lordſhip's directions, and at eleven P. M. by ſignal from the Meduſa, proceeded without loſs of time to attack the enemy's flotilla off Boulogne, as directed by your lordſhip; and as I thought it moſt adviſable to endeavour to reduce the largeſt veſſel firſt, I loſt no time in making the attack; but in conſequence of my leading the diviſion, and the enemy opening a heavy fire from ſeveral batteries, thought it adviſable to give the enemy as little time as poſſible, cut the tow-rope, and did not wait for the other boats, ſo that it was ſome little time before the heavy boats could get up; received ſo many ſhots through the boat's bottom, that I ſoon found her in a ſinking ſtate, and as it was not poſſible to ſtop ſo many ſhot-holes, was obliged, with the men, to take to another boat, and have the pleaſure to acquaint your lordſhip, that I received particular ſupport from the boats of his majeſty's ſhip York, which ſoon came up with the reſt of the diviſion I had the honour to command; but finding no proſpect of ſucceſs, and the number of men killed and wounded in the different boats, and the conſtant fire from the ſhore, of grape and ſmall arms, thought it for the good of his majeſty's ſervice to withdraw the boats between two and three in the morning, as we could not board her, although every effort was made.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) Iſaac Cotgrave.

The right hon. lord viſcount Nelſon, K. B. commander-in-chief, &c. &c.

His Majeſty's Ship Iſis, Sunday, Auguſt 16.

My lord,

In conſequence of directions received from your lordſhip, I laſt night, on the ſignal being made on board the Meduſa, left this ſhip with the boats of the fourth diviſion, formed with two cloſe lines, and immediately joined the other diviſions under the ſtern of the Meduſa, and from thence proceeded to put your lordſhip's order into execution, attacking the weſternmoſt part of the enemy's flotilla; but notwithſtanding every exertion made, owing to the rapidity of the tide, we could not, until near daylight, get to the weſtward of any part of the enemy's line; on approaching the eaſternmoſt part of which, in order to aſſiſt the firſt diviſion then engaged, we met them returning.

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turning. Under these circumstances, and the day breaking apace, I judged it prudent to direct the officers commanding the different boats to return to their respective ships.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Rob. Jones.

P. S. None killed or wounded on board any of the fourth division.

Right hon. lord viscount Nelson, K.B. commander-in-chief, &c. &c.

Discovery, off Boulogne, August 16.

My lord,

I beg leave to make my report to your lordship of the four howitzer boats that I had the honour to command, in the attack of the enemy last night.

Having led in to support captain Parker's division, keeping between his lines until the enemy opened their fire on him, we keeping on towards the Pier until I was aground in the headmost boat, then opened our fire, and threw about eight shells into it; but, from the strength of the tide coming out of the harbour, was not able to keep our station off the pier-head, but continued our fire on the camp, until the enemy's fire had totally slackened, and captain Parker's division had passed without me. I beg leave to mention to your lordship, that I was ably supported by the other boats. Captain Broome and lieutenant Beam, of the royal artillery, did every thing in their power to annoy the enemy. The other officers of artillery were detached in the other four howitzer boats.

I have the honour to be, &c.

John Conn.

Right hon. lord viscount Nelson, K.B. &c. &c.

London Gazette, Aug. 25, 1801.

Copy of a Letter from Lord Nelson, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated Downs, 23d Instant.

Sir,

Herewith I transmit you a letter which I have received from captain Rose, giving me an account of the boats of the several vessels under his orders having burnt a quantity of pitch, tar, and turpentine, destroyed three gun-boats, taken two launches, and a flat boat, about forty-five feet long, and eighteen or twenty feet wide, mounted with one brass eight-inch howitzer: this boat sunk astern of the Hound. The business, on the part of our boats, was conducted with much spirit; and much praise is due to lieutenant Agassiz, of the Hound, and lieutenant L. Vescont, of the Jamaica, for their brave example on this occasion.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Nelson and Bronte.

The Jamaica, at Sea, August 21.

My lord,

I beg leave to acquaint you, that yesterday evening, at eight o'clock, being at anchor off Estaples, I observed a large fire to the S. S. E. and at the same time a very heavy cannonade. I immediately got under way with the vessels under my orders, and ran down to it. About ten I spoke captain Sanadine, of the Hound, who informed me that the fire proceeded from a cargo of pitch and tar, belonging to a vessel wrecked on the coast some time ago, which the boats of the Hound and Mallard had set fire to; and that six flat-boats had come out of Saint Vallery that afternoon, which he forced on shore, and then lay hauled upon the beach.

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I accordingly this morning ſent the boats of the Jamaica, Gannet, and Hound, together with thoſe of the gun-brigs, to endeavour to cut them out, under the direction of lieutenant James Agaſſiz, of the Hound; at the ſame time ſtanding in with the different veſſels, in order to cover the boats from the fire of the military, and five field-pieces, poſted behind the ſand-hills on ſhore.

I am happy to acquaint your lordſhip that they ſucceeded in bringing off three; the others had been previouſly ſcuttled, ſo as to render it impoſſible to remove them; however, the boats damaged them as much as the time would admit of.

I cannot ſufficiently praiſe the gallantry and zeal of lieutenant Agaſſiz, of the Hound, and lieutenant L. Veſcont, of the Jamaica, with the officers and men employed on this ſervice.

Annexed I tranſmit a liſt of our loſs; and have the honour to be, &c.

Jonas Roſe.

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An Account of all Grain, Meal, Flour, and Rice, imported into Great Britain, between October 1, 1800, and October 1, 1801; distinguishing the Countries whence, and the Ports into which, imported.

	BARLEY.			BEANS.			OATS.		
	England.	*Scotland.*	*Great Br*	*England.*	*Scotland.*	*Great Br.*	*England.*	*Scotland.*	*Great Br.*
	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.
Denmark	537	781	1319				1063	1096	2160
Ruſſia	1070	255	1325				8521	1369	9891
Sweden	4628		4628				9014	72	9086
Poland	1796		1796				5644		5644
Pruſſia	15848	3466	19315	3496		3496	53749	20236	73986
Germany	102537	5663	108201	8417	5	8422	280986	43487	324473
Holland	38347		38347	6390		6390	257024	2675	259699
Flanders									
France				351		351	70		70
Portugal									
Spain									
Gibraltar	1		1						
Italy							70		70
Malta									
Ireland								366	366
Iſles									
States of America	390		390	8	11	20	8		8
Britiſh Cont. Colonies									
Weſt Indies									
Africa									
Total	165156 *6	10166 6	175323 4	18663 5	16 7	18680 4	616152 4	69304 7	685457 3

* In all the Tables, odd Buſhels come into Totals.

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THE PRECEDING ACCOUNT CONTINUED.

	PEASE.			RYE.			RYE MEAL.		
	England.	*Scotland.*	*Gr. Brit.*	*England.*	*Scotl.*	*Gr. Brit.*	*England.*	*Scotland.*	*Great Brit.*
	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu	Qrs. Bu.	Q. B.	Qrs. Bu.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Cwt. qr. lb.	Cwt. qr. lb.
Denmark	18	132	150	678		678			
Ruſſia	33		33	10275		10275			
Sweden	590		590	39		39			
Poland	1136		1136	15235		15235			
Pruſſia	5138	554	5692	9385	4	9385			
Germany	35208	3153	38361	42806		42806	364 2		364 2
Holland	2541		2541	15978		15978	7 0		7 0
Flanders	1		1				28 0		28 0
France									
Portugal									
Spain									
Gibraltar									
Italy									
Malta									
Ireland									
Iſles									
States of America	73	7	80	1622		1622	149084 0 20	13571 2 14	162655 3
Britiſh Continental Colonies		139	139						
Weſt Indies									
Africa									
Total	44742 3	3987 0	48729 3	96021 7	0 4	96022 3	149483 2 20	13571 2 14	163055 1 6

Denmark

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THE PRECEDING ACCOUNT CONTINUED.

	WHEAT.			WHEAT FLOUR.			INDIAN CORN.		
	England.	*Scotland.*	*Great Brit.*	*England.*	*Scotland.*	*Great Brit.*	*England.*	*Scotland.*	*Gr. Brit.*
	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Cwt. Qr. Bu.	Cw. Qr. Bu.	Cwt. Qr. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.	Qrs. Bu.
Denmark	4194	606	4800						
Ruſſia	140351	1838	142190	656 0	18 0	674 0			
Sweden	13034	15	13049						
Poland	224939	1635	226574	169 3		169 3			
Pruſſia	314345	35113	349458	2 2		2 2			
Germany	315378	23922	339300	4010 2	6 2	4017 0			
Holland	124713		124713	6163 3	0 2	6164 1			
Flanders				6 0		6 0			
France				1 0		1 0			
Portugal	102		102	54 0		54 0	1		1
Spain				30 3		30 3			
Gibraltar	3		3						
Italy	1		1						
Malta	2000		2000	216 1		216 1			
Ireland				1368 0	5 3	1373 3			
Iſles									
States of America	16292	4396	20689	658725 1	66049 2	724775 0	26435	14804	41239
Britiſh Continental Colonies	19880	24070	43950	23028 2	6728 3	29757 1	1		
Weſt Indies									
Africa									
Total	1175235 2	91598 0	1266833 2	694433 0 19	72809 2 1	767242 3 10	26436 1	14804 2	41240 3

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THE PRECEDING ACCOUNT CONTINUED.

NAMES	INDIAN MEAL.									RICE.								
	England			*Scotland.*			*Great Britain.*			*England.*			*Scotland.*			*Great Britain.*		
	Cwt.	Qr.	lbs.	Cwt.	Qrs.	lbs.	Cwt.	Qrs.	lbs.	Cwt.	Qrs.	lbs.	Cwt.	Qrs.	lbs.	Cwt.	Qrs.	lbs.
Denmark																		
Ruſſia																		
Sweden																		
Poland																		
Pruſſia																		
Germany										75	3					75	3	
Holland										14	1					14	1	
Flanders																		
France																		
Portugal																		
Spain																		
Gibraltar																		
Italy																		
Malta																		
Ireland				5	1		5	1		5	2					5	2	
Iſles																		
States of America	61700	3		47065	0		108766	0		237269	1		21027	0		258296	1	
Britiſh Cont. Colonies										1627	1		120	0		1747	1	
Weſt Indies	6	0					6	0		45	0		6	0		51	0	
Africa										192	0					192	0	
Total	61707	0	19	47070	1	9	108777	2	0	239229	3	24	21153	0	17	260383	0	13

OATMEAL.				*Bolls.*		*Pds.*
England	—	—	—	2	—	107
Scotland	—	—	—	48	—	88
Great Britain	—	—	—	57	—	55

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NAMES of the PORTS in ENGLAND.	Barley	Beans.	Oats.	Oatmc.	Peafe.	Rye.	Rye Meal.	Wheat.	Whe. Flour.	Ind. Corn.	Ind. Meal.	Rice.
	Qrs. B.	Qrs. B.	Qrs. B.	Boll. lb.	Qrs. B.	Qrs. B.	Cwt. qr. lb.	Qrs. B.	Cwt. qr. lb.	Qrs. B.	Cwt. qr. lb	Cwt. qr. lb.
Berwick . .			1485		5			561				
Briſtol . .	1198			1 61	154	45	31056 0 0	27544	78591 2 21	1743	6045 1 25	9293 3 23
Cheſter . .	847	70										
Chicheſter . .			1458					5420				
Colcheſter . .	326							132				
Cowes . .					2			2683				748 1 11
Dartmouth .								952				99 1 0
Dover . .	487	107	233		8			2044		4		
Exeter . .	134							1298				
Falmouth . .		1					117 2 8		26401 3 23	546	797 0 12	139 2 0
Harwich . .								2393				
Hull . . .	11363	3065	39130		3238	5491	2891 0 23	5497	10920 3 4	252	351 2 25	3127 3 3
Lancaſter .								53	13 3 9	262	135 3 7	1548 2 9
Liverpool . .	26285	5418	7544		5301	3912	90410 1 22	172284	289890 3 20	21624	32932 1 7	53322 1 25
Lynn . . .	1309	320	5357		203			9937				
Newcaſtle . .	10877	994	23441		1821	57576	242 2 0	36771				
Penzance . .									17 2 0		29 2 0	
Plymouth . .			258					624	238 0 0	25		
Poole . .			1270		94			3653				
Portſmouth .	1643		1997		4			5238				
Rocheſter . .				1 28				23				
Rye . . .	126				95	200		105				
Sandwich . .								2479				
Shoreham .			492									
Southampton	325	41	2913		184	29		6007				
Stockton . .						350						
Sunderland .	362		938		1	131		407				
Weymouth .	180		1618					599				
Whitby . .			19					743				
Whitehaven .					9			1155	180 1 15	67		
Yarmouth .	377	696	2307		50			404				
London . . .	109312	7949	525684	0 18	33473	28286	24765 3 23	806215	288178 0 11	1913	21415 0 27	170950 0 9
Total .	165156 6	18663 5	816152 4	2 107	44742 3	96021 7	149483 2 20	1175235 2	694433 0 19	26436 1	61707 0 19	239229 3 24

NAMES

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NAMES of the PORTS in SCOTLAND.	Barley.	Beans.	Oats.	Oatmeal	Peaſe.	Rye.	Rye Meal.	Wheat.	Wheat Flour.	Indian Corn.	Indian Meal.	Rice.
	Qrs. B.	Qrs. B.	Qrs. B.	Bol. lbs.	Qrs. B.	Qrs. B.	Cwt. qr. lb.	Qrs B.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Qrs. B.	Cwt. qrs. lb.	Cwt. qrs. lb
Aberdeen.			1629		5			243	17 2 0			
Air . . .					2			2309	2297 3 0	10	43 0 0	29 2 0
Alloa . . .	1494		700					4031	875 0 0			
Auſtruther .			773									
Borrowſtoneſs	876	5	18069		895	0 4		9810	18 2 0			
Dundee . .	590		7148		4			980				
Dumfries . .								23				
Glaſgow . .		11	366	48 88	133		13436 3 14	23443	63676 0 20	9308	44030 2 13	21042 1 14
Irvine . . .								1797	753 2 10			
Kirkaldy . .	830		3787					1088				
Leith . . .	5463		30523		2938		134 3 0	42680	5171 0 17	5485	2996 2 24	81 1 3
Montroſe . .	255		2843					4391				
Perth . . .	658		3464					798				
Rothſay . .					10							
Total Scotland	10166 6	16 7	69304 7	48 88	3987 0	0 4	13571 2 14	91598 0	72809 2 19	14804 2	47070 1 9	21153 0 17
— England }	165156 6	18663 5	616152 4	2 107	44742 3	96021 7	149483 2 20	1175235 2	694433 0 19	26436 1	61707 0 19	239229 3 24
bro. forward }												
— Gt. Britain	175323 4	18680 4	685457 3	51 55	48729 3	96022 3	163055 1 6	1266833 2	767242 3 10	41240 3	108777 2 0	260383 0 13

Inſpector General's Office, Cuſtom-houſe, London, 14th January, 1802.

William Irving,
Inſpector-General of the Imports and Exports of Great Britain.

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An Account of the Amount of Bank of England Notes in Circulation, on an Average of every Month, from the 25th of October, 1800; distinguishing the Amount of Notes below the Value of Five Pounds.

Amount of Bank of England Notes of Five Pounds each and upwards.

From 25th October to 25th November, 1800 . .	£13,816,700
25th November to 25th December . .	13,133,500
25th December to 25th January, 1801 . .	13,845,800

Amount of Bank of England Notes of Two Pounds and One Pound each.

From 25th October to 25th November, 1800 . .	£2,061,700
25th November to 25th December . .	2,148,700
25th December to 25th January, 1801 . .	2,519,400

William Warton, accountant-general.

Bank of England, Feb. 6, 1801.

An Account of the Nett Revenue of the Post-Office paid into the Exchequer, exclusive of Parliamentary Pensions and Grants, from the Year 1760 to 1800, both inclusive, distinguishing each Year.

The years ending 5th April.

1761	—	£36,400	0	0	1781	—	£142,400	0	0
1762	—	36,400	0	0	1782	—	103,100	0	0
1763	—	36,400	0	0	1783	—	148,400	0	0
1764	—	46,400	0	0	1784	—	177,400	0	0
1765	—	88,100	0	0	1785	—	225,100	0	0
1766	—	100,400	0	0	1786	—	264,000	0	0
1767	—	105,400	0	0	1787	—	254,000	0	0
1768	—	109,400	0	0	1788	—	274,000	0	0
1769	—	110,400	0	0	1789	—	300,000	0	0
1770	—	105,400	0	0	1790	—	361,000	0	0
1771	—	100,100	0	0	1791	—	325,000	0	0
1772	—	118,400	0	0	1792	—	340,484	3	9½
1773	—	149,400	0	9	1793	—	384,000	0	0
1774	—	147,400	0	0	1794	—	392,000	0	0
1775	—	153,400	0	0	1795	—	421,000	0	0
1776	—	165,100	0	0	1796	—	442,000	0	0
1777	—	141,400	0	0	1797	—	500,000	0	0
1778	—	118,400	0	0	1798	—	632,000	0	0
1779	—	121,400	0	0	1799	—	683,000	0	0
1780	—	121,400	0	0	1800	—	699,000	0	0

And taking a whole year, to 5th January, 1800, 716,000*l.* 0*s.* 0*d.*

An Account of annual Average Remittances from Scotland, from the Year 1760 to 1800.

The 1st ten years average remittances from Edinburgh, to 5th April, 1770 . .	£9,534	15	10
2d ditto, to 5th April, 1780 . . .	13,649	10	5
3d ditto, to 5th April, 1790 . .	25,815	7	1
4th ditto, to 5th April, 1800 . .	51,420	4	3

March 20, 1801. Thomas Church, deputy accomptant-general.

Account

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Account of the total Produce of the Tax upon Income, for the Year ending the 5th of April, 1801, as far as the ſame can be made up and eſtimated; diſtinguiſhing the Amount in conſequence of Aſſeſſments by the Commercial Commiſſioners.

Amount of aſſeſſments, as far as the ſame can be made up and eſtimated—

By commiſſioners for general purpoſes, and commiſſioners of appeal	£4,348,313	0	0
By commercial commiſſioners	1,394,837	0	0
Amount of voluntary contributions, received from the 1ſt January, 1800, to the 1ſt January, 1801	79,591	19	4
	£5,822,741	19	4

About one-fifth of the ſum aſſeſſed by commercial commiſſioners ariſes from property not derived from trade.

Office for Taxes, March 23, 1801. H. Parker.

An Account of the actual eſtimated Expenſe of collecting the Tax on Income, for the Years 1799 *and* 1800.

Poundage to the clerks, collectors, and receivers, computed on 4,540,747*l.* being the amount of the aſſeſſments by the commiſſioners for general purpoſes	£99,504	0	0
Sum paid for incidental expenſes in the execution of the act under the commiſſioners for general purpoſes	5,334	0	0
Sum paid for incidental expenſes, including the allowances to officers and clerks under the commercial commiſſioners, and expenſes of collection and receipt	18,756	0	0
Amount of incidental expenſes incurred under the commiſſioners of appeal, as far as the ſame can be made out from the accounts hitherto received	3,580	0	0
Probable amount of farther expenſes under the commiſſioners of appeal from accounts not yet received	1,000	0	0
Sums paid to aſſeſſors	4,620	0	0
Eſtimated amount of farther ſums to be paid to aſſeſſors	600	0	0
Allowances to ſurveyors in England	4,180	0	0
Amount of certificates for allowances to ſurveyors and aſſeſſors in Scotland	3,196	0	0
Printing, ſtationary, and other incidental expenſes in this office, in the execution of the acts, are eſtimated at	11,850	9	3
Total, not amounting to 6½*d.* in the pound on the whole ſums aſſeſſed	£152,620	9	8

The

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The ſubſequent year being juſt expired, no accounts have been received at this office, from which any ſtatement of the actual expenſes of collecting the income tax for the year 1800 can be made up; but, from the beſt judgement we can form, there ſeems no reaſon to ſuppoſe that the amount will exceed the charges of management for the year 1799, as above ſtated.

William Lowndes.
Barne Barne.
Edward Meadows.
Horace Hayes.

Office for Taxes, April 1801.

Account of the Nett Produce of the permanent Taxes, &c. of Great Britain, taken for two Years, ending reſpectively the 5th January, 1800, *and 5th January,* 1801.

	1800.			1801.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Total of cuſtoms, exciſe, ſtamps, and incidents, prior to the year 1793 . . .	14,117,698	14	7¼	12,358,158	2	11½
Add proportionate part of duties on ſugar now annually granted	1,141,317	13	2¼	1,236,455	1	1
Additional duty on malt, do.	222,145	0	0	155,986	0	0
Duty on tobacco	261,948	0	0	443,940	0	0
	15,743,109	7	10	14,194,539	4	0½
Total of duties 1793 . .	314,086	6	7½	294,260	7	6
Ditto . . . 1794 . .	689,433	6	1½	655,297	3	9½
Add proportionate part of duties on ſugar now annually granted	246,771	7	8¼	267,341	12	8¼
Total of duties 1795 . .	1,611,424	11	11½	1,452,691	11	3½
Ditto . . . 1796 . .	1,334,444	8	4¼	1,315,421	9	6
Ditto . . . 1797 . .	2,628,109	9	3½	2,642,708	4	7½
Add proportionate part of duties on ſugar now annually granted	231,348	3	6	250,632	15	7¼
Total of duties 1798 . .	732,576	7	10½	730,207	19	3½
Ditto . . . 1799 . .	260,491	5	9	186,462	9	7½
Ditto . . . 1800 . .	. . . . .			284,052	13	4
	23,791,794	15	0¼	22,273,615	11	4½

In order to ſhew the real amount of the taxes impoſed before and ſince the war, the produce of the duties on ſugar, tobacco, and malt, now annually voted, are added to the old duties, and to the new ones of which they were reſpectively a part while they were perpetual.

Account

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Account of Moneys advanced for public Services from the Civil List (not being Part of the ordinary Expenditure of the Civil List), and which had not been replaced by Parliament on the 5th of January, 1801; specifying the general Heads of Service for which any of the said Moneys were advanced, and the total Amount of the Advance on each Head respectively.

	£	s	d
To Bernard Cobbe, esq. for additional allowance to clerks in the office for auditing the public accounts	1,655	4	0
Matthew Martin, esq. towards carrying into effect a plan for inquiring into the mendicity of the metropolis	500	0	0
Edward Ogle, esq. et al. for expenses incurred upon a plan for the improvement of the port of London	253	12	7
Thomas Brodie, esq. for continuing the index to the journals of the house of lords	116	16	0
Bernard Cobbe, esq. to discharge fees on passing public accounts	3,500	0	0
George Rose, esq. for expenses at the parliament-office in session 1800	374	4	9
William Chinnery, esq. to pay bills drawn on account of New South Wales, due in the year 1800, being the excess of the sum granted by parliament for that service	6,756	10	5
James Wyatt, esq. to pay artificers employed in various works about the houses of parliament	2,000	0	0
William Pollock, esq. to pay fees on passing a commission, appointing commissioners to inquire into the state of the Coldbath-fields prison	175	3	2
William Chinnery, esq. for medicines sent to New South Wales	895	16	0
Lord Walsingham, for his attendance as chairman of the committee of the house of peers, in the session 1799-1800	2,701	9	0
Thomas Foden, esq. towards enabling him to prosecute a discovery made by him, of a paste as a substitute for wheat flour	500	0	0
Charles Abbot, esq. for sundry persons employed by the select committee of the house of commons to inquire into the state of the public records	1,095	0	0
George Whittam, esq. for making an index to the votes of the house of commons	220	0	0
Samuel Dunn, esq. for making an index to the journals of the house of commons	300	0	0
John Clementson, esq. for his attendance in the house of commons in the session 1799-1800	224	10	0
Carried forward £	21,268	5	10

To

	£	s.	d.
Brought forward	£21,268	5	10
To Jeremiah Dyſon, eſq. to make good the deficiency of his allowance as clerk-aſſiſtant of the houſe of commons during the ſeſſion 1799-1800	385	2	9
Henry Thornton, eſq. for the relief of the poor of the pariſhes of St. Matthew, Bethnall-green, Mile-end New-town, and Chriſt-church, Spital-fields	4,115	0	0
Charles Roſſi, being the ſecond payment, for erecting a monument in St. Paul's cathedral to the memory of captain Faulkener	1,480	14	0
Charles Bragge, eſq. for his ſervice to the houſe of commons	1,301	9	0
	£28,550	10	10

Whitehall, Treaſury Chambers,
15th April, 1801.

N. Vanſittart.

Account of the Diſtribution of the Sum of 1,395,414*l* 2*s. being Part of the Sum of* 1,400,000*l. granted to his Majeſty, to enable his Majeſty to fulfil ſuch Engagements, and to take ſuch Meaſures, as the Exigency of Affairs may require; paid by the Right Honourable the Paymaſter-General of his Majeſty's Forces.*

		£	s.	d.
Remitted to Mr. Wickham, on account of his majeſty's ſervice abroad		£200,000	0	0
Remitted abroad, to enable his imperial majeſty to replace magazines which have been taken by the enemy		150,000	0	0
To bills of exchange drawn by Daniel Bayley, eſq. from Peterſburgh, for public ſervices		63,363	12	9
To C. R. Broughton, eſq. for the ſervice of the queen of Portugal	116,293 13 4			
To William Smith, eſq. treaſurer of the ordnance, for gunpowder delivered from the ordnance ſtores, for the ſervice of ditto	27,675 0 0			
To Joſeph Rademaker, eſq. for the purchaſe of ſundry articles of ſtores	10,000 0 0			
		153,968	13	4
To bills of exchange drawn by John Erſkine, eſq. commiſſary-general in the Mediterranean, for public ſervices		82,841	19	11
To ditto drawn by George Warden, eſq. deputy commiſſary-general in Portugal and the Mediterranean, for do.		114,500	0	0
Carried over		£769,674	5	3

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Brought over	£769,674	5	3
To bills of exchange drawn by Alexander Fernandes, esq. assistant commissary-general in Portugal and the Mediterranean, for public services	81,492	3	5
To ditto drawn by George Burgman, assistant commissary-general in ditto, for ditto	38,450	7	4
To ditto drawn by Henry Motz, commissary-general in ditto	31,410	0	0
To H. Motz, esq. commissary-general to the forces under sir Ralph Abercrombie, for contingent expenses	5,000	0	0
To dollars consigned to Mr. Commissary Motz, for public services	20,000	0	0
To bills of exchange drawn by Messrs. Thornton and Power, from Hamburgh, for public services	51,017	6	0
To ditto drawn by Alexander Cockburn, esq. consul at Hamburgh, for ditto	6,810	0	0
To ditto drawn by general T. Trigge, for the expenses incident to public service within his command	250,000	0	0
To ditto drawn by colonel Ramsay, on account of the Swiss corps	141,560	0	0
	£1,395,414	2	0

Account of the several Sums of Money advanced, by Way of Loan or Subsidy, to different States, from the Commencement of the present War: together with an Account of the Interest received on such Sums as have been advanced by Way of Loan.

Issued for the service of Prussia, in 1794	£1,223,891	10	6
Ditto of Sardinia, in 1793, 4, 5, and 6	*500,000	0	0
Ditto of the emperor, in 1795 and 6	†6,220,000	0	0
Ditto, ditto, in 1797	700,000	0	0
Ditto of Portugal, in 1797	247,205	0	0
Ditto, ditto, in 1798	120,013	13	0
Ditto of Russia, in 1799	825,000	0	0
Ditto of the emperor, elector of Bavaria, &c.	500,000	0	0
Ditto of the emperor	1,066,666	13	4
Ditto of Russia	545,494	0	0
Ditto of Bavaria	501,017	6	0
Ditto of the emperor, to enable his imperial majesty to replace magazines which had been taken by the enemy at Stockach	150,000	0	0
	£12,599,288	2	10

Whitehall, Treasury Chambers,
June 29, 1801.

N. Vansittart.

* The subsidies voted for the king of Sardinia amounted to 600,000*l*; of which 100,000*l*. remaining unissued, a payment has been made, since the month of October, 1800, to the agent of his Sardinian majesty, at the rate of 4000*l*. per month.

† The interest received on the above-mentioned loans to the emperor of Germany, amounts to 935,573*l*. 19*s*. 2*d*.

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Memorandum—A ſum of 153,968*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.* which appears in the account preſented to the houſe of commons, of the diſtribution of the vote of credit for 1,400,000*l.* for the year 1800, to have been iſſued for the ſervice of the queen of Portugal, was furniſhed in various ſupplies of military ſtores.

Account of all ſubſiſting Penſions, granted by the Crown during Pleaſure or otherwiſe, and payable at the Exchequer; ſpecifying the Amount of ſuch Penſions reſpectively, and the Times when, and the Perſons to whom, and for whoſe Benefit, ſuch Penſions were granted.

Penſions formerly paid by the Paymaſter of Penſions.

		£		
Andrews, Catharine (now Nott)	per annum	100	0	0
Aſpenwall, Magdalen		150	0	0
Arnold, Margaret		500	0	0
Burwell, Mary (now lady Mary Churchill)		200	0	0
Brudenell, Robert		131	0	0
Brudenburgh, Dorothy		40	0	0
Barlow, Sophia		50	0	0
Barlow, Maria		50	0	0
Barlow, Louiſa		50	0	0
Barlow, Catharine (now Mrs. Thiſtlethwayte)		50	0	0
Buckworth, John		131	0	0
Brudenell, Auguſta		131	0	0
Blake, Robert		125	0	0
Biſhopp, colonel Thomas		400	0	0
Balcarras, earl of		800	0	0
Chamberlayne, Betty Clerk		66	13	4
Chamberlayne, Caroline		66	13	4
Cowper, Spencer, repreſentatives of, for the life of his daughter Jane Cowper		250	0	0
Creſſaner, Elizabeth		500	0	0
Colebrook, dame Mary		400	0	0
Clarke, Frances		100	0	0
Corbett, major Moſes		250	0	0
Carver, Mary		50	0	0
Dent, Catharine (widow)		80	0	0
Dent, Catharine (ſpinſter)		80	0	0
Dent, Sophia		30	0	0
Dent, Caroline		30	0	0
Dent, Cotton		30	0	0
Dutton, Patientia		131	0	0
Dunmore, counteſs of		400	0	0
Elliot, Robert, in truſt for Eleanor Eden, now lady Auckland		796	0	0
Foldeſey, Michael		40	0	0
Fraſier, Francis		300	0	0

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Falkland, lord, and John Law, or either of them; in trust for the four daughters of the late colonel Carey	£	400	0 0
Faucett, Susannah, during the lives of her two daughters		490	0 0
Fraser, William		200	0 0
Greville, Fulk		730	0 0
Gardener, Charlotte		65	0 0
Howard, Mary		100	0 0
Howard, lady Mary		150	0 0
Howard, lady Elizabeth		150	0 0
Hope, Henry		200	0 0
Hill, Frances		80	0 0
Harnage, Dorothea		20	0 0
Harnage, Ann		20	0 0
Harnage, Mercy		20	0 0
Harnage, Mary		20	0 0
Jenkinson, Elizabeth (now Cornwall)		250	0 0
Jean, Thomas		200	0 0
Knyphausen, general William		393	0 0
Knox, Laetitia		600	0 0
Laulac, Henrietta		20	0 0
Laurenzie, Erneſtine		200	0 0
Laye, Ann		120	0 0
Meuron, Suſan de		393	0 0
Middleton, Elizabeth		195	0 0
Onſlow, Arthur, in truſt for Poley, George, Walton, and Arthur Onſlow		300	0 0
O'Hara, Jemima		100	0 0
Popham, Catharine		200	0 0
Peyton, Sir Yelverton		250	0 0
Porten, Mary		300	0 0
Pownall, Mary		600	0 0
Palmer, William Finch, in truſt for the hon. Brydget Byng		131	0 0
Randall, Suſannah, Martha, and Elizabeth		50	0 0
Renard, Louis Peter		200	0 0
Rochford, earl of		1000	0 0
Schutz, George		500	0 0
Salgas, Maria, Louiſa, and Roſe		60	0 0
Schaw, James		150	0 0
Skinner, Heſter		100	0 0
Smith, John		100	0 0
Serle, Ambroſe (for 31 years, from the 5th of July, 1776)		393	0 0
Ditto		131	14 0
Swanton, Anna		300	0 0
Suſſex, lord, repreſentative of, and Robert Burton, in truſt for Mrs. Durell		500	0 0
St. John, Henry		131	0 0
Thomas, Gertrude		100	0 0
Vernon, Charles		300	0 0

Walters,

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Walters, Margaret	£200	0	0
Wettestein, Luke, in truſt for ſir Luke Schaub's daughters	200	0	0
Willis, James	150	0	0
Williams, Charles	263	0	0
Yates, lady	250	0	0

In lieu of Apartments at Somerſet Place.

Burdon, Elizabeth	33	15	0
Freemantle, Maria	45	0	0
Faucett, general ſir William	37	10	0
Holt, Jane	33	15	0
Melborne, Chriſtopher	45	0	0

Penſions formerly paid at the Treaſury.

Alt, Chriſtiana	50	0	0
Alt, Henrietta	50	0	0
Alt, Maria	50	0	0
Audley, lord	500	0	0
Bliſs, Joſeph	40	0	0
Broughton, Bryan	100	0	0
Bradſhaw, Elizabeth	500	0	0
Bradſhaw, Lawrence	100	0	0
Bradſhaw, Auguſtus Hill	100	0	0
Bliſs, Jonathan	150	0	0
Burdett, ſir Charles	200	0	0
Bowlby, lady Mary	200	0	0
Beawes, Mercy	100	0	0
Cawthorne, Joſeph	100	0	0
Clark, Hawley	40	0	0
Cockburne, dame Auguſta Ann	600	0	0
Chambers, Frances	18	18	0
Delaval, Edward Huſſey	300	0	0
Dodd, John	150	0	0
Durant, William	54	12	0
Davies, Henry	70	0	0
Davies, Eſther	40	0	0
Faddy, Peter	50	0	0
Fielding, Mary	50	0	0
Forbes, Lucy	20	0	0
Finch, Ann	50	0	0
Fawkener, Elizabeth	200	0	0
Goldie, Sophia	100	0	0
Gower, counteſs (marchioneſs of Stafford)	300	0	0
Green, John	200	0	0
Gunn, Ann	20	0	0
Guy, John	160	0	0

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Hay, Elizabeth	£ 25	0	0
Hamilton, James	200	0	0
Jeans, reverend Thomas	200	0	0
Kelly, Elizabeth	100	0	0
Kelynge, James	50	0	0
Kilſhaw, reverend Richard	100	0	0
Lind, Maria Henrietta	30	0	0
Lind, Mary	50	0	0
Lloyd, Ann (ſpinſter)	50	0	0
Lennox, Alexander	100	0	0
Lake, Ann	50	0	0
Luxmore, Henry	100	0	0
Lind, Lætitia	50	0	0
Mayor, John	650	0	0
Maſter, Mary	50	0	0
Miller, John	25	0	0
Morriſon, Mary	300	0	0
Macdonald, Roderick	18	18	0
Mein, John	200	0	0
Maclean, col. Allen, in truſt for Mrs. Hawkins's children	50	0	0
Machie, Charlotte	25	0	0
Nicolaides, Stephanus	80	0	0
Otway, Meliora	100	0	0
Petch, Mary	80	0	0
Pierard, Francis	50	0	0
Planta, Joſeph	120	0	0
Richmond, Robert	40	0	0
Ramus, George	200	0	0
Robinſon, Lucy	30	0	0
Roche, Elizabeth	50	0	0
Reid, George	200	0	0
Speer, William	200	0	0
Speed, Mary Ann	100	0	0
Stonehewer, Richard	600	0	
Smith, Frances Richmond	25	0	0
Villion, Elizabeth	100	0	0
Venner, Samuel	200	0	0
Vacchini, John	30	0	0
Watſon, Elizabeth	20	0	0
Whiteſoord, Caleb	200	0	0
Williams, lieutenant William	100	0	0
Watkins, John	150	0	

Penſions to the late Queen Caroline's Servants.

Alms-houſe at Hanover	10	3	8
Gibſon, George	100	0	0
Hoyn, counteſs	50	0	0

Penſions

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Penſions to the late Princeſs of Wales's Servants.

Bridge, William	£ 19	9	6
Brett, William	50	0	0
Bowlby, lady Mary	285	0	0
Bully, John	100	0	0
Cadman, Richard	56	14	0
Cameron, Dougald	39	0	0
Dalton, Thomas	30	0	0
Duval, Philip	250	0	0
Davies, Jane	10	0	0
Evelyn, Auguſta (now Mrs. Jenkins)	412	0	0
Egerton, Uriana Margaret	372	10	0
Egerton, Mary	131	10	0
Griffiths, John	200	0	0
Ditto	100	0	0
Heineker, Dorothy (now Mrs. Munro)	121	13	0
Harris, John	42	15	0
Hutchinſon, Thomas	39	0	0
Hand, John	39	0	0
Hamilton, Philippa (now lady Fuſt)	31	10	0
Irby, A. G. E. (now lady Walſingham)	372	10	0
Jackſon, Jane	65	0	0
Love, Richard	3	0	0
Ludby, Edward, for Edward and Thomas Godfrey, 10*l.* each	20	0	0
Maitland, hon. Alexander	209	0	0
Muller, Chriſtopher	25	4	0
Metan, William	27	6	0
Newton, Sarah	50	0	0
Neville, Catharine	372	10	0
Nicolay, Chriſtopher	173	10	0
Paſchall, Ann Elizabeth	21	0	0
Ramus, Charles	28	10	0
Roſhton, Henry	52	14	6
Roſhton, James	19	9	6
Riſſo, George	50	0	0
Ditto	100	0	0
Scott, William	475	0	0
Short, Edward	53	0	0
Street, Anthony	38	0	0
Schawer, John	39	0	0
Scott, Henrietta	12	12	0
Thomas, Charles Naſſau	131	10	0
Viney, Walter	42	15	0
White, Peggy	2	12	6
Watts, William	300	0	0
Ditto	80	0	0
Ditto	80	0	0

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Watſon, Elizabeth	£	20	0 0
Ward, Robert		95	0 0

Penſions by Sign Manual, with their Dates.

Antrobus, Edmund, and Coutts Trotter, in truſt for Eleanor Molleſon, July 20, 1793		300	0 0
Arnold, Benedict, and Thomas Morriſon, eſqrs. in truſt for Edward Shippen Arnold, James Robertſon Arnold, Sophia Matilda Arnold, and George Arnold, 100*l.* each, do.		400	0 0
Allen, Frances Anne, Jan. 20, 1795		65	0 0
Boland, Quaſhy, July 26, 1783		27	0 0
Brookſbank, Ann, March 4, 1783		200	0 0
Barnes, John, and Joſeph White, in truſt for Theodore Roſe, Feb. 9, 1785		300	0 0

This Penſion was granted in conſideration of George Roſe, eſq. having relinquiſhed the yearly ſum of 400*l.* nett, granted to him in purſuance of an addreſs to the Houſe of lords.

Brown, Charlotte, Dec. 11, 1786		100	0 0
Bremer, Ann, do.		53	16 0
Brooks, Lydia, July 6, 1798		100	0 0
Bates, Ann, March 14, 1787		11	16 0
Butler, Elinor, July 2, 1788		50	0 0
Beauclerk, Henrietta, Sept. 4, 1789		100	0 0
Beauclerk, Charlotte, do.		100	0 0
Beauclerk, Martha, do.		100	0 0
Beauclerk, Ann, do.		100	0 0
Bunbury, Henry, Feb. 24, 1795		500	0 0
Butler, Lady Elinor, Nov. 6, 1792		100	0 0
Bulmer, Dorothy, July 9, 1795		50	0 0
Burghall, George, March 13, 1793		300	0 0
Burke, right hon. Edmund, repreſent. of, during the life of Mrs. Burke, Sept. 20, 1794		1200	0 0
Browel, Henry, and Robert Henderſon, in truſt for the ſix children of James Fallowfield, July 9, 1795		56	0 0
Burges, ſir James Bland, July 1, 1796		1200	0 0
Byron, Catharine Gordon, Oct. 2, 1799		300	0 0
Bearcroft, Clare St. George, May 9, 1800		200	0 0
Call, ſir John, and John Roberts, eſq. in truſt for Sarah Bates, July 20, 1793		500	0 0
Cathcart, Elizabeth, baroneſs, Oct. 16, 1798		500	0 0
Cooke, Penelope Ann, July 20, 1793		150	0 0
Cooke, Eliza, do.		175	0 0
Cooke, Maria, do.		175	0 0
Chriſtie, Ann, June 14, 1783		31	0 0
Ditto, April 16, 1794		18	11 0

Cumberland,

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Cumberland, Lady Albinia, July 1, 1794	£ 400	0	0
Chamberlayne, Thomas Clerk, March 3, 1783	250	0	0
Chamberlayne, Betty Clerk, and Caroline Chamberlayne, July 6, 1793	66	13	4
Colleton, Lucy Cordelia, June 27, 1789	25	0	0
Coulson, Mary (widow) Jan. 20, 1795	35	0	0
Coutts, Thomas, esq. in trust for lady Augusta Murray, July 27, 1796	1200	0	0
Cranston, Henry, in trust for James lord Cranston, March 6, 1799	300	0	0
Davies, Mary, May 2, 1798	16	0	0
Davy, Elizabeth, July 20, 1793	32	10	0
D'Ivernois, sir Francis, Oct. 7, 1800	200	0	0
Edgcombe, Peggy, March 29, 1797	196	0	0
Eden, dame Caroline, Dec. 23, 1785	100	0	0
Eden, sir Frederick, Dec. 11, 1786	100	0	0
Elliot, Mary, Dec. 9, 1789	69	0	0
Elphinstone, lady, for herself and two daughters, June 25, 1790	300	0	0
Ewart, Elizabeth, (widow) Nov. 10, 1794	645	0	0
Ditto, in trust for John Ewart, do.	121	0	0
Ditto, in trust for Elizabeth Ewart, do.	121	0	0
Ditto, in trust for Mary Ewart, do.	121	0	0
Erskine, Mary Henrietta, July 11, 1797	400	0	0
Folger, Timothy, and his wife, May 21, 1793	169	0	0
Francis, Frances, Oct. 9, 1793	60	0	0
Francis, Elizabeth, do.	60	0	0
Fordyce, John, and William Fullarton, esqrs. in trust for George Hamilton Gordon, July 20, do.	200	0	0
Fawkener, William, Sept. 6, do.	300	0	0
Flint, Ann, (widow) Oct. 9, do.	66	0	0
Ditto, in trust for the two eldest of her eight children, do.	66	0	0
Fitzgerald, lord Robert, March 12, 1801	800	0	0
Greeme, Mary, June 27, 1789	100	0	0
Gilbert, Etienne Clerk, Aug. 23, 1791	100	0	0
Goddard, Charles, esq. to be wholly or proportionately suspended, agreeable to the amount of any office he may hold, April 3, 1799	850	0	0
Gower, earl, and sir Archibald M'Donald, in trust for Gertrude Phillipine de Kutzleben, May 21, 1800	130	0	0
Green, Elizabeth, (widow) March 12, 1801	200	0	0
Haslam, Sarah Ann, Dec. 11, 1786	32	14	0
Hamilton, dame Cassandra, June 29, 1787	100	0	0
Holdsworth, Elizabeth, June 27, 1789	300	0	0
Hamilton, Mary, May 7, 1790	80	0	0
Halifax, Robert, and Catharine Halifax, widow, in trust for Gertrude, Charlotte, Marianne, Caroline, Catharine, and Elizabeth Halifax, 60*l.* per ann. each, Sept. 2, 1793	360	0	0

Hobart,

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Hobart, Henry, and Richard Cumberland, eſqrs. and the ſurvivor of them, in truſt for Elizabeth Margaret Cumberland, July 1, 1794	£ 100	0	0
Ditto . . . . . Ditto, in truſt for Albinia Elizabeth Cumberland, do.	100	0	0
Hollingſworth, John, and Andrew Hollingſworth, in truſt for Sarah Adams, Dec. 22, 1795	360	0	0
Hort, ſir John, Sept. 28, 1796	1000	0	0
Hyde, rev. George Hooton, July 19, 1797	50	0	0
Howell, Anne, June 10, 1799	16	0	0
Hereford, lord and lady, and the ſurvivor of them, May 29, 1800	900	0	0
Hewgill Elizabeth, March 14, 1801	300	0	0
Huſkiſſon, William, May 17, 1801	1200	0	0
Johnſtone, Deborah Charlotte, (now Nugent) July 2, 1788	300	0	0
Jardine, Chriſtine, Oct. 7, 1800	125	0	0
Kyte, Loretta Maria, (widow) April 21, 1790	150	0	0
Lloyd, Ann, (ſpinſter) April 2, 1788	50	0	0
Lockman, Arabella Dorothea, Feb. 4, 1792	33	10	0
Lampriere, John, and Elizabeth Bandinell his wife, ſeverally and ſucceſſively, Oct. 24, 1798	200	0	0
Llewellin, Ann, May 2, 1798	16	0	0
Leſſie, lord, Aug. 14, 1799	500	0	0
Liviugſton, Edmund, Oct. 7, 1800	500	0	0
Lloyd, John, May 4, 1801	50	0	0
Monckton, Suſanna, April 29, 1785	200	0	0
Maclean, Jane, Nov. 10, 1785	150	0	0
Maclean, Jane, Sept. 28, 1786	150	0	0
Moyle, Iſabella and Mary, Aug. 7, 1789	150	0	0
Maclain, rev. Archibald, and Henrietta Ann Maclean, Nov. 13, 1790	100	0	0
Morland, William, for the life of Harriet Bernard, Oct. 2, 1792	554	0	0
Miles, William Auguſtus, July 20, 1793	300	0	0
Morley, Jane, (widow) Jan. 20, 1794	50	0	0
Mudge, Thomas, Jan. 13, 1798	130	0	0
Maclaine, Harriet Anne, Feb. 7, 1798	200	0	0
Mordaunt, Lady Mary, Sept. 2, 1797	400	0	0
Maclaine, Charles Anthony, eſq. June 11, 1800	130	0	0
Mordaunt, lady Mary, Oct. 24, 1800	200	0	0
Mitchell, rev. William, Jan. 19, 1801	130	0	0
Maurice, Robert Clerk, Oct. 14, 1800	300	0	0
Mallet du Pan, Mrs. Frances, Oct. 9, 1800	200	0	0
Montford, lord Thomas, Oct. 8, 1800	600	0	0
Munday, rev. Robert, Oct. 20, 1800	90	0	0
Miller, Ann, (widow) March 12, 1801	130	0	0
Noel, Maria, June 27, 1789	100	0	0
Nott, Charlotte Georgiana Auguſta, Oct. 2, 1799	150	0	0

Nott,

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Nott, Auguſta, do.	£ 150	0	0
Oſborn, ſir George, and John Ley, eſq. in truſt for Jane Wraxhall, July 20, 1793	400	0	0
Pierſon, Sarah, June 21, 1786	27	10	0
Pierſon, Frances, do.	27	10	0
Pierſon, Mary, do.	27	10	0
Pierſon, Diana Ann, do.	27	10	0
Ponſonby, Sarah, July 2, 1788	50	0	0
Poole, ſir Ferdinando, Dec. 24, 1782	670	0	0
Pierſon, rev. Thomas, March 14, 1801	130	0	0
Ramſden, Frecheville, March 4, 1783	300	0	0
Reideſell, Frederick Adolphus baron de, Feb. 9, 1785	265	0	0
Ritſo, Louiſa, June 27, 1787	250	0	0
Robinſon, Catharine Gertrude, Oct. 9, 1793	600	0	0
Rivers, James, April 21, 1794	446	0	0
Rowe, Suckey, Dec. 24, 1782	270	0	0
Roſs, James Tyrrel, Nov. 17, 1797	250	0	0
Scarſdale, lord, May 7, 1790	1200	0	0
Sundius, Chriſtopher, July 4, 1790	100	0	0
Sneyd, Jeremy, Sept. 18, 1793	336	0	0
Sneyd, Elizabeth, Sept. 18, 1793	336	0	0
Sutton, Captain Evelyn, Jan. 20, 1794	250	0	0
Starbuck, Samuel, and his wife, May 21, 1793	169	0	0
Sutton, Thomas Manners, George Dawning, and Matthew Beachcroft, eſqrs. in truſt for Mary Ann Herries, April 17, 1799	300	0	0
Ditto, in truſt for Iſabella Maria Herries, do.	150	0	0
Ditto, in truſt for Catharine Herries, do.	150	0	0
Ditto, in truſt for Julia Mary Herries, do.	150	0	0
Swinburn, Mary, Oct. 16, 1800	60	0	0
Spiegel, Van de Digna Johanna, March 14, 1801	500	0	0
Smith, Ann, May 4, 1801	50	0	0
Villiers, Right Hon. John and William Garthſhore, in truſt for Lady Louiſa Paget, Feb. 1, 1801	300	0	0
Webſter, William, his wife and the ſurvivor, Sept. 25, 1794	65	0	0
Woodcock, Elborough, in truſt for lady Margaret Fordyce, repreſentatives of, July 2, 1788	150	0	0
Woodford, ſir Ralph, baronet, Aug. 22, 1798	200	0	0
Williams, Mary, Sept. 4, 1789	100	0	0
Wrightſon, John, and the repreſentatives of Thomas Gibbons, in truſt for dame M. J. Perriot, Sept. 7, 1789	60	0	0
Willis, Thomas Clerk, Nov. 5, 1790	400	0	0
Walters, Margaret, Oct. 9, 1793	248	0	0
Walpole, honourable Thomas, July 20, 1793	500	0	
Whiteſoord, Caleb, do.	200	0	0
Walſingham, lord, in truſt for George and Thomas de Grey, and the ſurvivor, July 27, 1794	1200	0	0
Wilſon, Dr. James, Dec. 21, 1798	250	0	0

Penſions

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Penſions by Patent.

Aimſlie, ſir Robert, Sept. 8, 1796	£	1000	0 0
Douglas, right hon. Sylveſter, (contingent penſion) March 21, 1795		600	0 0
Ditto, during the life of himſelf and Frederic Sylveſter North Douglas, and the ſurvivor of them		600	0 0
Fraſer, William, Dec. 12, 1789		1200	0 0
Hamilton, ſir Charles, June 11, 1790		200	0 0
Knox, William, Dec. 10, 1790		600	0 0
Morgan, Maurice, Nov. 25, 1782		350	0 0
Robinſon, John, April 1, 1782		1000	0 0
Sutton, ſir Richard, (baronet) Jan. 5, 1769		564	0 0
St. Albans, duke of (from 16th February, 1787, to 10th October, 1803) May 9, 1789		1000	0 0
Skinner, ſir John, March 14, 1800		2000	0 0
Watſon, Brooke, in truſt for his wife, Sept. 19, 1788		557	10 0
Willis, John, M. D. Jan. 29, 1791		717	0 0
Willis, rev. Francis, do.		1000	0 0

Penſions to late Foreign Miniſters.

William Money, for ſervices performed in foreign parts, Feb. 2, 1776		100	0 0
John Oſborn, late envoy extraordinary to Dreſden, Dec. 26, 1775		800	0 0
Sir Robert Gunning, late do. and plenipotentiary to Peterſburgh, Nov. 20, 1776		1000	0 0
Horace, St. Paul, late envoy extraordinary to Stockholm, July 9, 1779		600	0 0
Joſeph Fry, chargé d'affaires at Bruſſels, Dec. 24, 1781		200	0 0
Benjamin Langlois, ſecretary of embaſſy at Vienna, March 9, 1782		875	0 0
John Millequet, chargé d'affaires at Dreſden, Auguſt 27, 1784		250	0 0
George Cooke, conſul-general at Tripoli, Nov. 24, 1785		248	0 0
Nathaniel Davidſon, do. ..... Algiers, Jan. 27, 1786		360	0 0
Lewis Dutens, chargé d'affaires at Turin, Feb. 16, 1787		300	0 0
Sir J. Stepney, envoy extraordinary at Berlin, July 15, 1788		800	0 0
Lord Torrington, miniſter plenipotentiary at Bruſſels, May 17, 1793		1684	0 0
Charles Keene, chargé d'affaires at Stockholm, June 26		250	0 0
Sir Ralph Woodford, envoy extraordinary at Copenhagen, Dec. 8, 1774		800	0 0
Charles Logie, conſul-general at Algiers, May 30, 1794		460	0 0

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The following are to continue until otherwise provided for in his Majesty's Service, or until determined by Warrant from his Majesty.

Lord Malmesbury, late ambassador extraordinary to the states general of the United Provinces, Jan. 28, 1797	£2300	0	0
Thomas Walpole, late envoy extraordinary to the elector Palatine, June 26, 1797	800	0	0
Major-general Gardner, late minister plenipotentiary to the court of Warsaw, Feb. 7, 1798	600	0	0
Francis James Jackson, late secretary of embassy, and minister plenipotentiary to Spain, and nominated ambassador to the Ottoman Porte, Oct. 23	1000	0	0
Charles Henry Fraser, late resident with the Hans Towns, April 3, 1799	900	0	0
John Coleman, esq. late chargé d'affaires at Hamburgh, Dec. 23	120	0	0
Right honourable John Trevor, late envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at the court of Turin, May 9, 1800	1200	0	0
Lord Henley, late envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to the court of Vienna, Jan. 20, 1801	2000	0	0
Lord Whitworth, late envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at the court of Petersburgh, March 12, 1801	2000	0	0
Sir William Hamilton, late do. at Naples, do.	2000	0	0
Honourable Robert Walpole, late do. at Lisbon, do.	2000	0	0
Daniel Hailes, late envoy extraordinary at the court of Stockholm, do.	800	0	0

Recapitulation.

Amount of pensions formerly payable by the late paymaster of pensions	£18,039	0	8
Ditto . . Ditto . . at the treasury	9,762	8	0
Ditto . . Ditto . . to the servants of the late queen Caroline and late princess of Wales	5,387	8	8
Ditto . . Ditto . . by sign manual	37,804	10	4
Ditto . . Ditto . . by patent	11,588	10	0

* These pensions were transferred to the exchequer by the act of the 22d of his present majesty, ch. 82.

* It is very probable that several of the persons whose names appear on these lists are dead; but that can only be ascertained from time to time, as the certificates are delivered by their representatives at the exchequer.

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Total amount of penſions having reference to the 6th claſs of civil-liſt payments, as directed by the act of 22d of his preſent majeſty, ch. 82	£	82,381	17 8
Amount of penſions to late foreign miniſters		24,447	0 0
	£	106,828	17 8

Whitehall, Treaſury Chambers, 29th June, 1801.

N. Vanſittart.

Memorandums: Amount of penſions payable at the Exchequer out of the duties of 4½ per centum, as per account preſented to the houſe of commons, on the 14th day of May laſt . . . . . £ 9,513 0 0

The penſions granted by authority of Parliament, and charged upon the conſolidated fund, are not included in this account.

Account of all Penſions charged upon his Majeſty's Civil Eſtabliſhment for Scotland; ſpecifying the Times when granted, and the Perſons to whom they are or may be payable; made up by the Barons of Exchequer, at Edinburgh.

Mrs. Chriſtian Campbell, Dec. 6, 1763	£	200	0 0
Ann Mary, baroneſs Forreſter, May 30, 1764		600	0 0
Lieutenant James Sutherland, April 29, 1769		100	0 0
Walter, lord Aſton, Jan. 23, 1769		100	0 0
Mrs. Marion M'Kay, Jan. 15, 1770		100	0 0
Colonel James Seton, Nov. 3, 1770		150	0 0
John, lord Colvin, of Culroſs, June 25, 1771		200	0 0
Lady Elgin, Nov. 12, 1771		300	0 0
Elizabeth Norris, Feb. 3, 1772		50	0 0
Margaret Wincheſter, Jan. 6, 1772		20	0 0
Lady Borthwick, Oct. 28, 1772		100	0 0
Sir Peter Inglis, truſtee for behoof of the children of ſir Archibald Primroſe, Nov. 8, 1774		200	0 0
Dr. James Beattie, Aug. 25, 1773		200	0 0
Lord Kirkcudbright, Aug. 15, 1774		200	0 0
Mrs. Elizabeth Stewart, Sept. 12, 1774		50	0 0
Mrs. Lucy Kennedy, Feb. 23, 1775		160	0 0
Allan M'Dougall, eſq. writer to the ſignet, in truſt for the widow and children of John Hay, of Newhall, eſq. June 1, 1775		400	0 0
Mrs. Jane Campbell, March 2, 1775		100	0 0
Lord Cathcart, and other truſtees, for behoof of lord Napier's children, Sept. 20, 1775		300	0 0

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Katharine, lady Morton, Sept. 1, 1775	£200	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Sinclair, Dec. 30, 1775	150	0	0
John Stirling, do.	100	0	0
Margaret and Jean Law, Nov. 29, 1776	50	0	0
Alexander Burnet, esq. do.	200	0	0
Elizabeth Dunbar, May 1, 1777	20	0	0
William Muir, esq. Nov. 15, 1777	300	0	0
James Francis Erskine, esq. June 26, 1777	200	0	0
Misses Janet and Ann Dick, Feb. 20, 1778	100	0	0
Charles St. Clare, esq. Aug. 14, 1778	200	0	0
Mrs. Margaret Mansfield, May 28, 1779	150	0	0
Lady Ann Erskine, Feb. 24, 1779	100	0	0
Lady Mary Cochrane { 100*l.* Dec. 2, 1779 / 100*l.* Aug. 9, 1781 }	200	0	0
Lady Wallace, June 14, 1780	150	0	0
Lady Ann Gordon, do.	150	0	0
Mrs. Hannah Falconer, Nov. 24, 1780	45	0	0
Francis Anderson, esq. Aug. 9, 1781	100	0	0
Isabella, countess dowager of Errol, March 19, 1782	300	0	0
Elizabeth, Jane, Margaret, and Ann Watson, do.	100	0	0
Mrs. Allan Grant, March 19, 1782	100	0	0
Lady Ann Lindsay { 150*l.* do. / 150*l.* Dec. 14, 1782 }	300	0	0
Mrs. Ann Fraser Rose, Feb. 24, 1788	100	0	0
Lady Mary Home, formerly lady Mary Hay, Feb. 26, 1783	100	0	0
Miss Janet Keith, do.	100	0	0
Miss Ann Keith, do.	100	0	0
Miss Dorothy Dalrymple, Feb. 26, 1783	100	0	0
Frances Maria Murray, do.	150	0	0
Lady Harriet Boyce, do.	200	0	0
Isabella Kirkpatrick, March 15, 1782	50	0	0
Mrs. Penelope Maitland, Feb. 26, 1783	170	0	0
Mrs. Margaret Stewart Gordon, do.	50	0	0
Katharine Don, Oct. 25, 1786	50	0	0
James Rochead, esq. of Inverlieth, and others, trustees for behoof of the widow and children of George M'Kay, of Reay, May 10, 1785	315	0	0
Miss Sophia Jane Grant, Dec. 23, 1784	50	0	0
Miss Charlotte Grant, do.	50	0	0
Mary Cockburn, Aug. 31, 1786	60	0	0
Margaret, Catharine, and Elizabeth Buchanan, Aug. 30, 1786	100	0	0
Ann and Elizabeth Forbes, Sept. 4, 1786	20	0	0
Margaret Mary Nimmo, do.	50	0	0
Mrs. Ann Burnett, April 5, 1787	50	0	0
Mrs. Janet Tait, April 5, 1787	100	0	0
John Leslie, baron Lindores, do.	150	0	0

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James Dundas, esq. for Mr. Erskine's trustees, for behoof of Charles James Gardner, July 5, 1787	£50	0	0
Jean and Elizabeth Mercer, Sept. 24, 1787	40	0	0
Mrs. Anne Forrest, July 5, 1787	60	0	0
Maria Margaret, lady Napier, May 4, 1789	200	0	0
William, lord Gray, May 23, 1788	200	0	0
Mrs. Grizel Hamilton, May 4, 1789	50	0	0
Mrs. Jane Cockburn, Aug. 8, 1789	200	0	0
George Home, esq. in trust for Jane and Cecilia Telfer, May 11, 1789	100	0	0
Jean and Lilias Stewart, Aug. 8, 1789	50	0	0
Ann, Jean, and Christian Seton, March 17, 1790	60	0	0
Miss Mary Campbell, May 28, 1790	100	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Dalrymple, ditto	100	0	0
James, lord Torpichen, March 18, 1790	300	0	0
Mrs. Jane Carre, May 28, 1790	100	0	0
Mrs. Susan Williamson, May 28, 1790	100	0	0
Miss Ann Colvill, July 1, 1790	100	0	0
Miss Katharine Colvill, ditto	100	0	0
Mrs. Isabel Gardner, July 2, 1790	50	0	0
Margaret, Katharine, Ann, Harriot, and Caroline Grant, ditto	100	0	0
Miss Marion Dalrymple, ditto	100	0	0
Mrs. Betty Dickson, ditto	30	0	0
Mr. William Baron, ditto	100	0	0
Miss Johanna Ferguson, ditto	70	0	0
Miss Elizabeth, Ann, Margaret, and Robina Cullen, July 8, 1790	200	0	0
Mrs. Eleonora Russell, ditto	100	0	0
Dame Magdalane Maxwell, July 31, 1790	100	0	0
Elizabeth Sutherland, June 26, 1789	100	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Wardlaw, for behoof of her four children, June 7, 1788	100	0	0
Mrs. Ann Hall, Sept. 29, 1789	55	0	0
Lady Isabella Sinclair, July 2, 1790	150	0	0
Mrs. Jean Currie, ditto	40	0	0
Mrs. Agnes Simpson, May 28, 1790	30	0	0
Fletcher Norton and Adam Pearson, esqrs. in trust for behoof of Mrs. Balmain and children, Oct. 21, 1790	100	0	0
Mrs. Helen Hay, Aug. 13, 1790	100	0	0
Elizabeth Jemima, countess of Errol, Feb. 7, 1791	300	0	0
Miss Mary Cockburn, March 14, 1791	100	0	0
Miss Fanny Cockburn, ditto	100	0	0
Miss Harriott Cockburn, ditto	100	0	0
Lady Dalzell, July 8, 1790	200	0	0
Elizabeth Dunbar, Sept. 7, 1791	100	0	0
Miss Catharine Sinclair, Oct. 1, 1791	37	10	0
Miss Margaret Sinclair, ditto	37	10	0

Miss

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Miſs Ann Sinclair, Oct. 1, 1791	£37	10	0
Mary Bertram, Aug. 1, 1791	25	0	0
Henry Scott, earl of Delorain, Sept. 7, 1791	300	0	0
Lady Sinclair, of Longformacus, ditto	100	0	0
Mrs. John Robinſon, ditto	100	0	0
Lady Livingſton, ditto	100	0	0
Miſſes Ann and Elizabeth Livingſton, ditto	100	0	0
Mrs. John Stewart or Crawford, Oct. 1, 1791	100	0	0
Mrs. Henry Mackenzie, and Hannah Mackenzie her daughter, ditto	100	0	0
Miſſes Margaret and Mary Mackenzie, ditto	100	0	0
Miſs Hope Mackenzie, ditto	100	0	0
Miſs Ann Houſton, ditto	100	0	0
Mrs. Colonel Cunningham, ditto	100	0	0
Miſſes Suſan and Grizel Sandilands, ditto	100	0	0
Miſs Margaret Haldane, ditto	66	0	0
Miſs Euphemia Haldane, ditto	66	0	0
Miſs Elizabeth Hope Carnegie, Dec. 19, 1791	100	0	0
Mrs. Maxwell, Dec. 1, 1791	100	0	0
Miſs Eſther Orr, ditto	100	0	0
Mrs. Mary Sutherland, Dec. 30, 1791	100	0	0
Miſs Mary Sutherland, Dec. 30, 1791	100	0	0
Miſs Louiſa Sutherland, ditto	100	0	0
Mrs. Margaret Haldane, and Elizabeth Haldane her daughter, ditto	100	0	0
John Drummond, eſq. in truſt for lady Irvine and her two daughters, March 19, 1792	100	0	0
James Robertſon, eſq. for behoof of the four younger children of captain George Robertſon, March 21, 1792	100	0	0
Kirkpatrick Williamſon, eſq. in truſt for Elizabeth and Helen Williamſon, ditto	100	0	0
Ann, baroneſs Elphinſtone, and Ann and Clementina Elphinſtone, her daughters, June 24, 1791	300	0	0
Ann Stewart, March 1, 1792	50	0	0
Mary Ann Hamilton, Nov. 14, 1791	70	0	0
Lady Louiſa Kerr, June 16, 1792	200	0	0
Lady Staney Kerr, ditto	200	0	0
Lady Elizabeth Kerr, ditto	200	0	0
Agnes Lumſden, Nov. 14, 1791	30	0	0
William lord Home, Aug. 3, 1792	300	0	0
Lady Foulis, Aug. 23, 1792	100	0	0
Miſs Iſabella Kirkpatrick, ditto	100	0	0
Miſs Ann Cramond, ditto	60	0	0
Miſs Elizabeth Fleming, ditto	50	0	0
Miſs Catharine Fleming, ditto	50	0	0
Miſs Jean Fleming, ditto	50	0	0
Miſs Eugenia Leſlie, Oct. 9, 1792	60	0	0
Agnes Shaw, wife of George Shaw, Nov. 16, 1792	50	0	0

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Charlotte Simpſon, Dec. 30, 1791	£ 100	0	0
Caroline Mary Cooper, May 15, 1793	200	0	0
Elizabeth Ann Cooper, ditto	200	0	0
Jean, Barbara, and Charlotte Legertwood, ditto	100	0	0
Lady Mary Martin, ditto	200	0	0
Lady Emelia Cook, ditto	200	0	0
Elizabeth Maxwell, July 18, 1793	100	0	0
Jean, Margaret, and Douglas Moncrieffe, June 19, 1793	200	0	0
James Lord Forbes, Nov. 16, 1793	100	0	0
Lady Forbes, ditto	300	0	0
John Campbell, of Stonefield, eſq. Oct. 21, 1793	300	0	0
Henry Woodcock, and other truſtees of Elborough Woodcock, for behoof of lady Margaret Fordyce, Feb. 9, 1788	150	0	0
Agnes Maxwell, Jan. 20, 1796	50	0	0
David Cathcart, and others, in truſt for John Wylde, eſq. March 16, 1796	150	0	0
Mary Henrietta Erſkine, July 21, 1797	400	0	0
William Cuthill and Henry Scott Alves, for the child or children of Ann Wilſon, by her huſband, Richard Wilſon, July 11, 1797	300	0	0
Andrew Drummond, eſq. for lady Dunmore, Aug. 7, 1798	200	0	0
Lady Virginia Murray, Aug. 7, 1798	200	0	0
Lady Elizabeth Murray, ditto	100	0	0
Crawfurd Tait, for Mrs. Henrietta Lindley, ditto	50	0	0
Charlotte Murray, ditto	50	0	0
Dr. Adam Ferguſon, March 8, 1799	100	0	0
Iſabella, Mary, and Margaret Ferguſon, his daughters, ditto	200	0	0
Mary Clara, lady Elibank, Aug. 6, 1799	300	0	0
Mrs. Barbara Hay, and ſix daughters, May 19, 1800	600	0	0
Jean, counteſs of Caithneſs, July 1, 1800	200	0	0
John, baron Elphinſton, ditto	300	0	0
Agnes, Jean, Grace, and Mary Campbell, July 2, 1800	200	0	0
Mrs. Margaret Swinton, and Margaret, Mary, Iſabella, Harriott, and Ann Swinton, her daughters, July 4, 1800	300	0	0
Mrs. Emelia Elder, and at her death to her ſon, Oct. 24, 1800	300	0	0
Dr. Thomas Sommerville, Oct. 6, 1800	100	0	0
Dame Helen Dalrymple, Oct. 24, 1800	200	0	0
Mary, John, Amelia, and Janet Campbell, ditto	200	0	0
Lady Elizabeth Eleonora Dundas, and at her death to her ſix daughters, Feb. 14, 1801	300	0	0
Robert and Coutts Trotter, eſqrs. for Mrs. Maria Cochrane, Oct. 24, 1800	200	0	0
Total charge	£ 24,864	10	0

Exchequer Chambers, Edinburgh, 13th June, 1801.

Examined and certified by Francis Anderſon, dep. auditor.

General

General View of the financial Affairs of India, from the Budget opened by Mr. Dundas, in the House of Commons, 12th June, 1801.

Result of the Year 1799-1800, collectively.

Revenues—Bengal	£ 6,504,738	
Madras	2,822,536	
Bombay	415,663	
Total revenues		9,742,937
Charges—Bengal	4,332,991	
Madras	3,132,919	
Bombay	1,495,270	
Total charges		8,961,180
Nett revenue of the three presidencies		781,757
Deduct supplies to Bencoolen, &c.		171,363
The remainder is		610,394
And deducted from interest paid on the debts,		
At Bengal	642,818	
Madras	253,667	
Bombay	82,371	
		978,876
The deficit of revenue from the territories, &c. is		368,162
And deducted from the amount sales of imports		706,495
The remainder		338,033

is the amount applicable to the the purposes of commerce.

Amount advanced for purchase of investments, payment of commercial charges, and in aid of China investments:		
At Bengal	1,197,764	
Madras	851,483	
Bombay	315,995	
Bencoolen	30,502	
Total advances for investment		2,395,744
Cargoes invoiced from India to Europe in 1799-1800, with charges		2,168,302

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Result of the Estimates 1800-1801, *collectively.*

Revenues—Bengal	£6,339,204	
Madras	3,273,071	
Bombay	300,475	
Total revenues		9,912,750
Charges—Bengal	4,422,048	
Madras	3,723,112	
Bombay	1,051,693	
Total charges		9,196,853
Nett estimated revenue of the three presidencies		715,897
Deduct supplies to Bencoolen, &c.		82,360
Remainder		633,537
Deducted from interest on debts		1,082,042
Shews the nett deficiency of the revenues from the territories to be		448,505
Which deducted from the estimated amount of sales of imports		591,975
The remainder is		143,470

and is the amount estimated to be applicable in the year 1800-1801 to the purchase of investments, payment of commercial charges, &c.

The home accounts furnished much cause for satisfaction.

Aggregate amount of sales, 1800-1801		10,323,452
More than last year	162,842	
Excess on the company's goods alone	234,314	
Excess on private trade goods	45,112	
Deficiency on neutral property	116,584	
The sale of the company's goods estimated at		6,675,000
Actually amounted to		7,602,041
Being more than estimated		927,041
The receipts on sales of company's goods estimated at		6,201,000
Actually amounted to		7,382,849
Being more than estimated		1,181,849
Charges and profit on private trade estimated at		100,000
Actually amounted to		133,429
Being more than estimated		£33,429

GENERAL

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GENERAL RESULT.

Although the actual receipts have fallen ſhort of the eſtimate upwards of 800,000*l.* from a diſappointment in an expected payment from government, and from deferring the diſpoſal of the loyalty loan; and although the payments have been exceeded by an enlarged ſupply to India, yet the very favourable produce from the ſales of goods, and the extenſion of time for the liquidation of debts to the bank, have ſo operated, that the balance of caſh eſtimated to be on the 1ſt of March againſt the company is	£368,013
Actually proved to be in their favour to the amount of	930,590
Being more favourable than eſtimated by	1,298,603

He next came to the ſtate of the

DEBTS IN INDIA.

Amount ſtated laſt year	12,995,526
Amount this year	14,640,401
Increaſe	1,644,875
Debts transferred in the year	345,307

Debts bearing Intereſt.

Amount laſt year	10,190,528
Amount this year	12,301,570
Increaſe of debts bearing intereſt	2,111,042
Amount of intereſt payable by the account of laſt year	915,687
Amount of intereſt payable by the account of this year	1,082,042
Increaſe of intereſt payable annually	166,35

ASSETS IN INDIA.

Conſiſting of caſh, goods, ſtores, &c. laſt year	10,259,107
Ditto, ditto, by the preſent ſtatement	11,569,553
Increaſe of aſſets	1,310,446
Deduct—Increaſe of aſſets from increaſe debts, the ſtate of the company's affairs in India will appear worſe by	334,430

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Although the ſtate of the concern at home was worſe this year by 344,981*l.* on the particular ground of deducting increaſe of debts from decreaſe of aſſets, yet the nett improvement at China and St. Helena was no leſs than 1,442,232*l.* He ſhould proceed to the conſideration of debts and aſſets both in India and at home.

GENERAL COMPARISON OF DEBTS AND ASSETS.

Increaſe of debts in India		£ 1,644,876
Decreaſe of debts at home		436,233
Nett increaſe of debts		1,208,643
Increaſe of aſſets in India		1,310,446
Decreaſe of aſſets at home		781,214
Increaſe		529,232
Add nett improved balance at China and St. Helena as follows:		
China	1,446,101	
Deduct St. Helena	3,869	
	1,442,232	
Total increaſe of aſſets		1,971,464
Deducting the above increaſe of debts from the increaſe of aſſets, an improvement would appear to have been made in the company's affairs in the courſe of the year to the amount of		762,821
But the following ſums remain to be deducted for bills on account of India, adjuſted but not included in the Indian debt, or in that at home	391,915	
For the value of cargoes to India included in the home aſſets, but arrived ſo as to form part of the ſtock there on the 30th of April, 1800	280,441	
		672,356
The remaining total		£ 90,465

is the amount in which the general ſtate of the whole concern has amended during the laſt year, ſubject, however, to ſuch adjuſtments as may reſult from the ſettlement of the account between government and the company.

The

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The average Price of Wheat in each Year, from 1595 *to* 1800, *inclusive.*

Years.	Wheat per Qr. £.	s.	d.	Years.	Wheat per Qr. £.	s.	d.	Years.	Wheat per Qr. £.	s.	d.	Years.	Wheat per Qr. £.	s.	d.
1595	2	0	0	1647	3	13	8	1699	3	4	0	1751	1	18	6
1596	2	8	0	1648	4	5	0	1700	2	0	0	1752	2	1	10
1597	3	9	6	1649	4	0	0	1701	1	17	8	1753	2	4	8
1598	2	16	8	1650	3	16	8	1702	1	9	6	1754	1	14	8
1599	1	19	2	1651	3	13	4	1703	1	16	0	1755	1	13	10
1600	1	17	8	1652	2	9	6	1704	2	6	6	1756	2	5	3
1601	1	14	10	1653	1	15	6	1705	1	10	0	1757	3	0	0
1602	1	9	4	1654	1	6	0	1706	1	6	0	1758	2	10	0
1603	1	15	4	1655	1	13	4	1707	1	8	6	1759	1	19	10
1604	1	10	8	1656	2	3	0	1708	2	1	6	1760	1	16	6
1605	1	15	10	1657	2	6	8	1709	3	18	6	1761	1	10	3
1606	1	13	0	1658	2	5	0	1710	3	18	0	1762	1	19	0
1607	1	16	8	1659	3	6	0	1711	2	14	0	1763	2	0	9
1608	2	16	8	1660	2	16	6	1712	2	6	4	1764	2	6	9
1609	2	19	0	1661	3	10	0	1713	2	11	0	———	-	-	-
1610	1	15	10	1662	3	14	0	1714	2	10	4	1766	2	3	1
1611	1	18	8	1663	2	17	0	1715	2	3	0	1767	3	4	6
1612	2	2	4	1664	2	0	6	1716	2	8	0	1768	3	0	6
1613	2	8	8	1665	2	9	4	1717	2	5	8	1769	2	5	8
1614	2	1	8½	1666	1	16	0	1718	1	18	10	1770	2	9	0
1615	1	18	8	1667	1	16	0	1719	1	15	0	1771	2	7	2
1616	2	0	4	1668	2	0	0	1720	1	17	0	1772	2	10	8
1617	2	8	8	1669	2	4	4	1721	1	17	6	1773	2	11	0
1618	2	6	8	1670	2	1	8	1722	1	16	0	1774	2	12	8
1619	1	15	4	1671	2	2	0	1723	1	14	8	1775	2	8	4
1620	1	10	4	1672	2	1	0	1724	1	17	0	1776	1	18	2
1621	1	10	4	1673	2	6	8	1725	2	8	6	1777	2	5	6
1622	2	18	8	1674	3	8	8	1726	2	6	0	1778	2	2	0
1623	2	12	0	1675	3	4	8	1727	2	2	0	1779	1	13	8
1624	2	8	0	1676	1	18	0	1728	2	14	6	1780	1	15	8
1625	2	12	0	1677	2	2	0	1729	2	6	10	1781	2	4	8
1626	2	9	4	1678	2	19	0	1730	1	16	6	1782	2	7	10
1627	1	16	0	1679	3	0	0	1731	2	12	10	1783	2	12	8
1628	1	8	0	1680	2	5	0	1732	1	6	8	1784	2	8	10
1629	2	2	0	1681	2	6	8	1733	1	8	4	1785	2	1	10
1630	2	15	8	1682	2	4	0	1734	1	18	10	1786	1	18	10
1631	3	8	0	1683	2	0	0	1735	2	3	0	1787	2	1	2
1632	2	13	4	1684	2	4	0	1736	2	0	4	1788	2	5	0
1633	2	18	0	1685	2	6	8	1737	1	18	0	1789	2	11	2
1634	2	16	0	1686	1	14	0	1738	1	15	6	1790	2	13	2
1635	2	16	0	1687	1	5	2	1739	1	18	6	1791	2	7	0
1636	2	16	8	1688	2	6	0	1740	2	10	8	1792	2	2	4
1637	2	13	0	1689	1	10	0	1741	2	6	8	1793	2	8	8
1638	2	17	4	1690	1	14	8	1742	1	14	0	1794	2	11	0
1639	2	4	10	1691	1	14	0	1743	1	4	10	1795	4	2	0
1640	2	4	8	1692	2	6	8	1744	1	4	10	1796	3	12	4
1641	2	8	0	1693	3	7	8	1745	1	7	6	1797	2	12	0
1642 } wanting in				1694	3	4	0	1746	1	19	0	1798	2	9	8
1643 } the account				1695	2	13	0	1747	1	14	10	1799	3	7	4
1644 } ditto				1696	3	11	0	1748	1	17	0	1800	5	12	8
1645 }				1697	3	0	0	1749	1	17	0				
1646	2	8	0	1698	3	8	4	1750	1	12	6				

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Variations in the Price of the Quartern Loaf, during 1801.

N. B. The Quartern Loaf weighs 4lb. 5½ oz.

		s.	d.			s.	d.
Jan.	1.	1	9¼	July	16.	1	6½
	15.	1	8		23.	1	8
	29.	1	9	Auguſt	7.	1	7
Feb.	2. Brown bread	1	7¼		13.	1	6¼
	5. Ditto	1	7¼		20.	1	4½
March	5.	1	10½		27.	1	2½
	26.	1	9½	September	3.	1	0½
April	2.	1	9¼		10.	1	0¼
	16.	1	9		17.	1	0½
	23.	1	8½	October	8.	1	1
	30.	1	8		22.	0	11¾
May	7.	1	6¼		29.	0	11¾
	14.	1	4¾	November	5.	0	10½
	21.	1	3½		12.	0	10¼
	28.	1	4½		26.	0	11¾
June	4.	1	4¾	December	10.	1	0
	11.	1	5¼		17.	0	11½
	18.	1	5		24.	1	0
	25.	1	4¾		31.	1	0¼
July	9.	1	5¼				

Abſtract

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Abstract of the Enumeration of England and Wales, taken in 1801, in Conformity to an Act of Parliament, and copied from the Report.

Counties of England.	*Inhabited Houses.*	*By how many Families occupied.*	*Uninhabited Houses.*	*Males.*	*Females*	*Total of Persons.*
Bedford	11,888	13,980	185	30,523	32,870	63,393
Berks	20,573	23,416	622	52,821	56,394	109,215
Buckingham	20,443	23,834	543	52,094	55,35[illegible]	107,441
Cambridge	16,139	19,262	312	44,081	45,26[illegible]	89,346
Chester	34,481	37,613	1,139	92,759	98,992	191,751
Cornwall	32,906	39,040	1,472	89,868	98,4[illegible]	188,269
Cumberland	21,573	25,893	872	54,37[illegible]	62,35[illegible]	117,230
Derby	31,822	33,660	1,369	79,401	81,74[illegible]	161,142
Devon	57,955	72,559	3,235	157,240	185,761	343,001
Dorset	21,437	24,142	825	53,667	61,652	115,319
Durham	27,195	38,109	1,171	74,770	85,5[illegible]	160,361
Essex	38,371	46,784	1,027	111,356	115,08[illegible]	226,407
Gloucester	46,457	55,133	1,715	117,18[illegible]	133,62[illegible]	250,809
Hereford	17,003	18,822	941	43,955	45,236	89,191
Hertford	17,681	20,092	491	48,[illegible]63	49,514	97,577
Huntingdon	6,841	8,150	135	18,521	19,04[illegible]	37,568
Kent	51,585	65,967	1,413	131,374	156,25[illegible]	307,624
Lancaster	114,270	132,147	3,394	322,356	350,37[illegible]	672,731
Leicester	25,992	27,967	742	63,943	66,13[illegible]	130,081
Lincoln	41,395	42,629	1,094	162,445	106,112	208,557
Middlesex	112,912	199,854	5,171	373,655	444,47[illegible]	818,129
Monmouth	8,948	9,903	417	22,173	23,4[illegible]9	45,582
Norfolk	47,617	57,930	1,523	129,842	143,52[illegible]	273,371
Northampton	26,665	29,361	736	63,417	68,34[illegible]	131,757
Northumberland	26,518	35,503	1,534	73,357	83,744	157,101
Nottingham	25,611	30,081	542	68,558	71,79[illegible]	140,350
Oxford	20,599	23,750	594	53,786	55,83[illegible]	109,620
Rutland	3,274	3,563	87	7,978	8,37[illegible]	16,356
Salop	31,182	34,501	929	82,563	85,07[illegible]	167,639
Somerset	48,04[illegible]	57,013	2,136	126,927	146,82[illegible]	273,750
Southampton	38,345	45,331	912	105,667	113,98[illegible]	219,656
Stafford	45,198	48,185	1,995	118,698	120,455	239,153
Suffolk	32,253	43,481	552	101,091	109,34[illegible]	210,431
Surrey	46,07[illegible]	63,673	1,514	127,138	142,90[illegible]	269,043
Sussex	25,272	30,255	721	78,797	80,51[illegible]	159,311
Warwick	40,847	44,028	2,936	99,942	108,24[illegible]	208,190
Westmoreland	7,897	9,026	315	20,175	21,44[illegible]	41,617
Wilts	29,462	30,527	1,127	87,380	97,72[illegible]	185,107
Worcester	26,711	29,741	1,109	67,631	71,70[illegible]	139,333
York: East Riding	25,781	31,544	681	67,457	71,97[illegible]	139,433
York: North Riding	31,512	34,542	1,014	74,904	80,602	155,506
York: West Riding	111,146	117,379	4,723	276,00[illegible]	287,94[illegible]	563,953
	1,467,870	1,778,420	53,965	3,987,935	4,343,495	8,331,434

Anglesey

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Counties of Wales.	Inhabited Houses.	By how many Families occupied.	Uninhabited Houses.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
Anglesey - - -	6 679	7,058	127	15,775	18,031	33,806
Brecon - - -	6,315	6,800	479	15,333	16,242	31,630
Cardigan - - -	8,819	9,435	221	20,403	22,548	42,956
Carmarthen - - -	13,449	14,876	371	31,439	35,878	67,317
Carnarvon - - -	8,504	8,796	129	19,586	21,655	41,221
Denbigh - - -	12,621	13,765	427	29,247	31,105	60,352
Flint - - -	7,585	8,216	134	19,577	20,045	39,622
Glamorgan - - -	14,225	16,536	537	34,110	37,735	71,845
Merioneth - - -	5,787	6,576	103	13,896	15,610	29,506
Montgomery - - -	8,725	9,752	223	22,914	25,564	47,678
Pembroke - - -	11,869	12,428	398	25,406	30,872	56 280
Radnor. - - -	3,675	3,987	212	9,317	9,803	19,050
	118 053	118,303	3,511	257,118	284 568	541,546

Abstract of the Enumeration of England and Wales, taken in 1801, in Conformity to an Act of Parliament.

SUMMARY.	Inhabited Houses.	By how many Families occupied.	Uninhabited Houses.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
England - -	1,467,870	1,778,420	53,965	3,987,035	4,343,491	8,331,454
Wales - -	108,053	118,303	3,511	257,118	284,568	541,546
Army - -				198,351		198,351
Navy - -				126,275		126,275
Seamen in registered vessels				144,555		144,588
Convicts - -				1,410		1,410
Grand Total	1,575,923	1,896,723	57,476	4,715,711	4,628,060	9,343,578

In England 1,524,227 persons are employed chiefly in agriculture, and 1,189,532 in trade, manufactures, and handicraft. In Wales 189,062 are employed in agriculture, and 53,822 in trade, &c.

It will be observed, that when the army and navy are added to the males, there is a total excess of the number of males over that of females of 88,844.

List

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List of all the Cities and Towns in England and Wales, whose Population exceeds Five Thousand.

Cities and Towns.	*Inhabited Houses.*	*By how many Families occupied.*	*Uninhabited Houses.*	*Males*	*Females.*	*Total of Persons.*
London - - -	121,229	216,073	5185	393,369	471.476	864 845
Manchester - -	12,547	18,560	279	39,110	44,910	84,020
Liverpool - - -	11,446	16,989	338	34 367	43,286	77,653
Birmingham - -	14,528	15,303	1875	34.716	38,954	73,670
Briſtol - - -	10,403	14,413	493	26,043	36,702	68,645
Leeds - - -	11,258	11,790	341	25,5 4	27,658	53,162
Plymouth - - -	4447	10,708	89	18,016	25,178	43,194
Newcaſtle - - -	4190	8944	198	16,343	20,620	36,963
Norwich - - -	8016	9093	747	15,810	21,044	36,854
Bath - - - -	4289	6510	174	12,441	19,759	32,200
Portſmouth - -	5310	6937	30	14,309	17,857	32,166
Sheffield - - -	6518	6754	643	15,483	15,831	31,314
Hull - - - -	4649	7449	118	13,051	16,465	29,516
Nottingham - -	4977	6707	100	13,729	15,132	28,861
Exeter - - -	2692	3947	144	7314	10,084	17,398
Leiceſter - - -	3205	3668	85	7921	9032	16,953
York - - - -	2407	3841	72	7018	9127	16,145
Coventry - - -	2930	3548	204	7672	8362	16,034
Cheſter - - -	3109	3427	85	6492	8560	15,052
Dover - - -	3339	3834	231	7187	7658	14,845
Yarmouth - -	3081	3541	78	6463	8382	14,845
Shrewſhu y - -	2773	3300	88	6647	8092	14,739
Greenwich - -	2067	3215	54	7323	7016	14,339
Sunderland - -	1365	3372	14	4902	7510	12,412
Oxford - - -	1827	2230	82	5920	5774	11,694
Colcheſter - - -	1959	2829	38	5012	6508	11,520
Worceſter - - -	2237	2627	133	4909	6443	11,352
Ipſwich - - -	2170	2738	51	4984	6293	11,277
Wigan - - -	2177	2277	59	5068	5921	10,989
Derby - - -	2144	2441	26	4982	5850	10,832
Huddersfield - -	1873	1873	101	5240	5431	10,671
Chatham - - -	1715	2665	14	4699	5806	10,505
Carliſle - - -	1314	2303	24	4479	5742	10,221
Lynn - - - -	1965	2437	47	4540	5556	10,096
Cambridge - -	1691	2078	42	4964	5123	10,087
Reading - - -	1751	2135	32	4642	5100	9742
Lancaſter - - -	1598	1998	13	3999	5031	9030

Canterbury

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Cities and Towns.	Inhabited Houses.	By how many Families occupied.	Uninhabited Houses.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
Canterbury	1741	2276	58	3805	5195	9000
Macclesfield	1416	1539	101	3979	4764	8743
Whitehaven	1776	2403	47	3348	5394	8742
Maidstone	1330	1742	16	3835	4192	8027
Southampton	1509	1876	73	3390	4523	7913
Devizes	1552	1728	41	3624	4285	7909
Salisbury	1489	1833	45	3412	4256	7668
Bury	1360	1641	37	3399	4523	7655
Gloucester	1325	1732	43	3428	4151	7579
Durham	1024	1930	30	3319	4211	7530
Whitby	1596	1992	108	3271	4212	7483
Lincoln	1516	1619	58	3474	3924	7398
Brighthelmstone	1282	1380	142	3274	4065	7339
Bradford	1254	1551	34	3473	3829	7302
Berwick	930	1791	35	3009	4178	7187
Northampton	1322	1652	49	3244	3776	7020
Grantham	1385	1456	72	3377	3637	7014
Kendall	1394	1671	30	2950	3942	6892
Hereford	1392	1715	68	3023	3805	6828
Rochester	1136	1553	14	3071	3746	6817
Newark	1376	1487	14	3098	3632	6730
Scarborough	1615	1769	50	2730	3958	6688
Sandwich	1287	1407	111	2966	3540	6506
Kidderminster	1251	1405	44	3020	3090	6110
Swansea	1182	1504	21	2529	3570	6099
Beverly	1300	1432	35	2734	3267	6001
Boston	1221	1334	31	2698	3228	5926
Winchester	791	902	19	2767	3059	5826
Taunton	1146	1308	48	2450	3344	5794
Warwick	1055	1142	29	2709	3066	5775
Doncaster	1186	1261	60	2477	3220	5697
Holywell	1093	1189	53	2566	3001	5567
Carmarthen	930	1737	15	2338	3210	5548
Deal	906	1107	11	2484	2936	5420
Stockport	2572	2965	126	6983	7847	14,830
Bolton, Great,	2454	2509	56	5924	6625	12,594
Wolverhampton	2344	3087	190	6207	6358	12,565
Oldham	1212	1464	19	5946	6078	12,024
Blackburn	2339	2405	13	5559	6421	11,980
Preston	2169	2347	62	5415	6472	11,887
Quick (Yorkshire)	1215	1873	92	5496	5169	10,665
Warrington	2258	2315	38	4780	5787	10,567
Walsal	1984	2084	185	5274	5125	10,399
Dudley	1922	2170	118	4909	5198	10,107
Woolwich	1341	2556	21	4476	5350	9826
Sporland (Lancashire)	1672	1707	123	4430	4601	9031
Hallifax	1913	1935	62	3976	4910	8886
Frome	1653	1853	56	4084	4664	8748
Wakefield	1721	1792	81	3701	4430	8131
Shields, South,	1260	2225	3	3274	4834	8108
Wellington	1467	1576	13	3796	3735	7531

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Cities and Towns.	*Inhabited Houſes.*	*By how many Families occupied.*	*Uninhabited Houſes.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total of Perſons.*
Shields, North, -	891	2024	3	2972	4308	7280
Huddersfield - -	1376	1456	22	3619	3649	7268
Bury - - -	1341	1400	43	3442	3630	7072
Bilſton - - -	1246	1268	55	3433	3481	6914
Tiverton - -	1221	1397	101	3001	3504	6505
Bradford (Yorkſhire)	1317	1393	51	2987	3406	6393
Barton - - -	1051	1150	22	3070	3127	6197
Biſhop Wearmouth -	844	1603	46	2706	3420	6126
Mansfield - -	1201	1258	44	2798	3190	5988
Trowbridge - -	1018	1073	67	2552	3247	5799
Hunſlet - -	1205	1258	64	2828	2971	5799
Croydon - -	1020	1115	54	2761	2982	5743
Workington - -	1160	1375	21	2453	3263	5716
Elleſmere - -	1009	1117	26	2733	2820	5553
Stroud - - -	1033	1355	15	2602	2820	5422
Shepton Mallet -	1105	1191	49	2310	2794	5104
Hinckley - - -	919	966	11	2597	2473	5070

A Liſt of the County Towns in England and Wales, whoſe Population is leſs than Five Thouſand.

County Towns.	*Inhabited Houſes.*	*By how many Families occupied.*	*Uninhabited Houſes.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total of Perſons.*
Chicheſter - -	821	1017	10	2091	2653	4744
Bedford - - -	783	975	17	1712	2236	3948
Stafford - - -	710	802	13	1921	1977	3898
Launceſton - -	465	947	3	1466	2218	3684
Hertford - -	529	666	13	1762	1598	3360
Monmouth - -	638	743	39	1512	1833	3345
Dolgelly (Merioneth)	630	730	28	1326	1623	2949
Haverfordweſt -	593	722	20	1097	1783	2880
Pool (Montgom.) -	530	661	13	1305	1567	2872
Cardiff - - -	314	413	13	852	1018	1870
Guilford - -	464	579	19	1242	1312	2634
Buckingham - -	551	617	14	1180	1425	2605
Brecon - - -	499	586	41	1123	1453	2576
Dorcheſter - -	344	515	9	1078	1324	2402
Denbigh - - -	534	590	18	1061	1330	2391
Huntingdon - -	350	350	6	993	1042	2035
New Radnor - -	359	390	20	951	970	1921
Cardigan - -	415	430	20	789	1122	1911
Carnarvon - -	304	336	0	828	942	1770
Beaumaris - -	267	288	2	650	917	1576

Firſt

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First Report of the Committee of Secrecy of the House of Commons, relative to treasonable Practices in Great Britain and Ireland.

The committee of secrecy, to whom the several papers, which were presented (sealed up) to the house, by Mr. chancellor of the exchequer, upon the 1st and 2d days of this instant April, by his majesty's command, were referred; and who were directed to examine the matters thereof, and report the same, as they shall appear to them, to the house:—

Have proceeded with the utmost diligence to the consideration of the matters referred to them; but, from the extent and variety of the information respecting different parts of the united kingdom, which has been laid before them, they are under the necessity of requesting the indulgence of the house for a short time, before they can submit the result of their investigation on all the points to which it has extended.

Your committee, however, think it incumbent upon them to state, without delay, that they have received the fullest proofs that the dangerous and treasonable conspiracy for the subversion of the constitution and government, which, in the year 1798, in concert with a foreign enemy, produced the horrid and sanguinary rebellion in Ireland, and the progress and extent of which in Great Britain is detailed in the report of the committee of secrecy in the year 1799, has never been abandoned. The hopes and activity of the disaffected were checked, and their intentions frustated, by the vigilance of government, and by the effect of the laws which were adopted: but their principles and designs remained unchanged, and they have for some time, and more especially of late, been endeavouring to take advantage of the distress occasioned by the high price of provisions, for carrying those wicked designs into effect. It has particularly appeared to your committee, that the instigators of these proceedings have, on repeated occasions, secretly expressed their wish for the aggravation of those evils, which they every where endeavour to use as a pretext and engine for exciting popular discontent: they appear to have derived their principal encouragement from the pressure arising from the scarcity; from the hopes of assistance from a foreign enemy upon the invasion of Great Britain or Ireland; and from the expiration of the laws before referred to, which, from the concurrent testimony from different parts of the kingdom, they acknowledge and declare to have been the principal obstacle to their measures.

Within a few weeks past, and to the latest period to which the information received by your committee can apply, their activity has been great and increasing in the metropolis and in other parts of the kingdom; every effort is employed that can tend to disturb the public tranquillity; and recent intelligence has been received from different quarters, which justifies your committee in believing, that at this moment the immediate object of the disaffected is to endeavour, by a sudden explosion, to avail themselves of the interval which may still take place before those laws can be renewed. The dangerous system of a secret confederacy, under the obligation of an unlawful oath, which prevailed in Ireland, and afterwards extended itself to Great Britain, has been revived, with additional precautions, for

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for the purpoſe of eluding detection, and of enſuring concert, ſecrecy, and diſpatch: and it appears to be in agitation, ſuddenly, by theſe means, to call numerous meetings, in different parts of the country, at the ſame day and hour, to an extent, which, if not prevented, muſt materially endanger the public peace; and that among the perſons moſt forward in inſtigating theſe criminal proceedings, are ſome of thoſe who had been detained under the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act, and who have been recently releaſed from confinement.

Theſe conſiderations your committee have felt themſelves bound to ſubmit, in the firſt inſtance, to the wiſdom of the houſe, believing that any delay in ſo doing would be attended with material danger to the country; and, for the ſame reaſon, they feel it a duty incumbent on them, to take the firſt moment of ſtating to the houſe their ſtrong and unanimous opinion, grounded on the information which they have received, that no time ought to be loſt in renewing thoſe meaſures of precaution which the wiſdom of the legiſlature has before adopted; particularly the act for the ſuſpenſion of the proviſions of the habeas corpus act, and the act to prevent ſeditious meetings, which, while they remained in force, were attended with the happieſt effects in preſerving the public tranquillity, and which your committee have the moſt confident hope would have the ſame ſalutary operation, under the preſent circumſtances.

Second Report.

After ſome preliminary obſervations upon the means by which information had been obtained, the report ſtates,

"It was not to be expected that perſons who had deeply imbibed the principles of the French revolution, who were inflamed with the moſt ſanguinary animoſity againſt all the exiſting eſtabliſhments of church and ſtate; that ſuch of them, particularly of the lower orders of ſociety, whoſe hopes were inſtigated by the proſpect of the plunder of the rich, and the partition of the landed property of the country, and who had been taught to abjure all the reſtraints which divine or human laws have impoſed on the paſſions of men, ſhould be induced, by any change of circumſtances, or legal coercion, ſuddenly to abandon thoſe principles, and to return to the duties of loyal and peaceable ſubjects. It accordingly appears manifeſt, that, though the exertions of the diſaffected in this country were ſuppreſſed by the vigilance of government, acting under the powers intruſted to them by parliament, and by the fear of detection and immediate apprehenſion; yet their diſpoſition remained unaltered. That from the month of May, 1799, notwithſtanding the detention of ſeveral of the moſt active members of the late correſponding ſociety, others have continued occaſionally to meet, without any form of regular aſſociation, and ſtudiouſly avoiding any conſtant place of aſſembling, or written memorial of their tranſactions. A principal object at firſt was the collection of money for the relief of the perſons confined under charges of treaſonable and ſeditious practices, with whom they ſeem conſtantly to have preſerved their former connexion. On the 5th of November, 1799, when they began to derive freſh encouragement from the

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the unfavourable events on the continent, and the evacuation of Holland by the British troops, a party of them assembled to celebrate the anniversary of Hardy's acquittal, on which occasion they appear first to have ventured on a more open avowal of their opinions, and to have indulged in the most treasonable and seditious toasts and songs. As yet, however, the mischief went no farther; and indeed, during all this period, till late in the last year, they seem to have despaired of any immediate success in their projects, for which some of them supposed no favourable opportunity would occur till the restoration of peace should, as they hoped, have at once removed the legal restraints which now impeded their operations, and brought home such an addition of unemployed hands, as would increase the existing scarcity, and add to the prevailing discontents. They felt themselves, and lamented the effect of the powers intrusted to government by the act for suspending the habeas corpus act: their former leaders were dispersed and secluded, and they apprehended for themselves a similar fate. Particular events, however, of the nature before alluded to, had at different times given some encouragement to their views, and diminished their apprehensions: the successes of the enemy in the last campaign, the disappointments of our allies, still more of any enterprise in which this country was more particularly concerned, or any danger which threatened the life or health of their sovereign, were, as they occurred, a constant source of satisfaction, and of renewed hope and expectation. The health of the chief consul of France, the successes of his arms, when opposed to those of their country; the progress of the rupture with the northern powers, as a means of impoverishing our merchants, and creating distress and discontent among the manufacturers, were among the first wishes that marked the complexion of their convivial meetings, or expressed the malignity of their private reflections. The dearth of provisions, early in the last year, opened a new field for similar speculations, and the return of it after the last harvest, increased the inducements and the hope of converting it to their views: of this, as well as of other public calamities, they were disposed to avail themselves in a way that marks sufficiently the character of those principles which lead the revolutionary enthusiast to overlook, or make him seek to augment the miseries, however extended, of individuals, in the hope of deriving from them the means of subverting existing establishments. They affected indeed openly much feeling for the sufferings of the people, and fomented their complaints against the supposed authors of them; but in private they expressed their satisfaction at the continuance of the distress, and were only apprehensive that the cause of the complaint might cease by a return of plenty; they hoped particularly that the scarcity would press hard upon the soldiery, and produce discontent and insubordination; and the better to serve their cause, they did not scruple to hold out the most unwarrantable hopes of success in their extensive plans of meditated seduction. They disapproved, indeed, of the disposition to riot, which appeared in some places on account of the scarcity in the month of September last, as leading to partial and premature insurrection, not sufficiently connected with their own more large

and

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and revolutionary views; but they thought a period somewhat later more favourable to their designs, which might be better advanced by a different line of conduct. Under this impression, they promoted a meeting of a most dangerous nature, to be held at Kennington-common, on the 9th of November, by public advertisement, which was stated to government at the time to be issued under their direction; this fact has since been confirmed by positive depositions upon oath, and by concurrent testimony, which has been obtained in consequence of some of the late apprehensions; from all which it also appears that several of the persons above referred to attended, and that the state of the weather alone prevented their being present in great numbers. Other meetings were concerted in different parts of the metropolis or its vicinity, with a view to distract the attention of the magistrates, and harass the operations of the military. The first of these, however, failed, in consequence of the information previously afforded to the officers of government, and the presence of magistrates; and the others were prevented by the apprehension of detection, from the reward offered for the conviction of the persons concerned in convening the first. Similar plans were still in agitation in the following month, when a seditious and treasonable land-bill, in the form of a proclamation, was prepared and circulated by a person lately a leading member of the disaffected societies, and who your committee have reason to believe was principally concerned in convening the meeting at Kennington-common; a copy of which is annexed to this report."

The report then proceeds to state the arrival of United Irishmen, and the fabrication of pikes and daggers. The expiration of the act suspending the habeas corpus encouraged them to renew their designs at the commencement of the present year. Their plan, as stated in the report of the house of lords, was to have an executive committee of ten, and sub-agents for the different districts. To conceal their designs, they formed themselves into clubs, called benefit societies, where private assassination of certain individuals was recommended. Another society, called Spensonians, was formed, merely to discuss public affairs, they agreeing with a book published by Spence, recommending an agrarian law, the destruction of the nobility, &c. Upon the release of their leaders by the expiration of the act for suspending the habeas corpus, a supper was given, at which seditious and treasonable language was held.

"This meeting seems to have occasioned a more confident opinion of their strength, and of the success of their schemes of seduction. They boasted of the extension of their society over different and remote districts of the metropolis. They were not, however, insensible to the proceedings of parliament on the subject of the martial law bill in Ireland, which they were apprehensive might be applied to the suppression of their enterprises here, or if not, at least, that the suspension of the habeas corpus act would be renewed, and effectually operate to counteract their designs. Under this impression, a particular degree of caution was recommended by the executive as to the persons to whom the oath should be administered; they suspected they were observed, and were afraid of being apprehended before their plan

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was ripe for execution, which they admitted it would not be till they ſhould be provided with arms ſufficient for their purpoſe The ſame apprehenſion operated differently on ſome of the moſt ardent ſpirits of the confederacy, who were ſtill more ſanguine as to the numbers who would join them, and who were deſirous of ſtriking the blow before meaſures could be taken for their ſuppreſſion, and who thought they might ſupply the want of which they complained, by a deſperate attack on ſeveral repoſitories of arms, which would at once deprive the military of the means of reſiſtance, and furniſh themſelves with weapons for attack; others, not admitted to the ſecrets of the executives, accuſed them of tardineſs in their operations, and were impatient to be called into action. The more cautious counſels however prevailed, which were perhaps promoted by mutual ſuſpicion, and by the reluctance of ſome, when it came near the point, to engage in outrages of ſuch atrocity.

Other meetings were held in different parts of the town, and at one of them, the Spenſonians, the following toaſts were drank:

May the laſt of kings be ſtrangled in the bowels of the laſt of prieſts!

A ſpeedy amalgamation of party with the maſs of the people.

Religion without prieſts, and governments without kings.

A diſh of fiſh for the Engliſh, and may they always reliſh an Iriſh pike.

Vinegar Hill, and may the foes of the people meet with ſour ſauce.

The heroes of Wexford.

The rights of the people, and may the people never want ſpirit to maintain their rights.

Honeſt men at the head of affairs, and thoſe at the head of affairs without heads at all.

No lord, nor landlord, but the Lord God, our only Lord.

May the uſurpation of the great landholders be ſpeedily deſtroyed, and every man recover his original ſhare of land.

May the age of ſuperſtition be annihilated, and the age of reaſon be eſtabliſhed in its ſtead.

"At one of the moſt recent meetings a ſupper was given, at the expenſe of ſome unknown patron, to celebrate again the releaſe of the champions of their cauſe; when they were ſtill entertained with the moſt ſeditious ſongs and toaſts, ſufficiently deſcriptive of their attachment to our foreign enemy, and abhorrence of the form of our own conſtitution; ſuch as

"Bonaparte, and ſucceſs to the army of Egypt.

"The guillotine, a cure for the king evil."

The diſaffected take ſteps to win over religious enthuſiaſts, as well as viſionary reformers, though they deſpiſe religion. The report next proceeds to ſtate, that ſocieties on ſimilar principles were formed in the chief towns; and that the great object and hope of all was to foment rebellion by means of the ſcarcity of proviſions. They repreſented their numbers trained to arms at 60,000, ſometimes double that number; one of their plans was to ſeize the arms of the loyal aſſociations. They connected themſelves with a religious ſect (the Jeruſalemites) in Yorkſhire, whoſe creed was the 25th, 26th, and 27th, of the 21ſt chapter of Ezekiel. In Lancaſhire their numbers were great and bold, and an inſurrection was propoſed for the ſeed-time. A ſecret convention ſat for ſix different diviſions of the kingdom, and a general meeting was actually held

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held early in April, near Manchester, which was dispersed. The disaffected held out encouragement to the enemy to invade this country, by representing they would be joined by great numbers. The report then describes a new plot lately discovered in Ireland, for forming the disaffected into regiments, a seditious address to the Irish sailors in our fleet, and solicitations of assistance from France; but the agent who asks this, it is said, "Stipulates, however, with his proposed allies, for the assurance of their property to all the present possessors, in opposition to any claim of the catholics, whom he states still to look forward with hopes of establishing a popish ascendancy; and it appears that he has been given to understand, that both the late directory, and one of the principal ministers of the present government of France, had coincided in the justice and propriety of that stipulation."

"The report next details the rebellious and atrocious proceedings in Ireland, at considerable length, the plans of assassination, &c. Persons are flogged, to compel them to sell cheap provisions; cattle are destroyed; horses are stolen, to facilitate the designs of the rebels; a general tendency to insurrection exists among the lower class, and the rebellion is not quenched.

"That in one county, for a year past, one whole barony has been tributary to and in possession of an armed banditti of about fifty persons, under two known leaders, who regularly exercise their men, station their pickets, and march to the sound of a horn, to the commission of all sorts of outrages, and declare their intention of persisting till a general rising may enable them to overturn the existing constitution and government.

"The robbery of the mail in Kildare, in the month of April last, by a gang of eighteen or nineteen armed men, who commenced their attack by a volley of musketry, is a striking instance of the manner in which these outrages are committed; and a recent and well-known transaction of the most atrocious nature, in the county of Tipperary, proves that the system of secret proscription and delegated assassination is still in force, supported either by the concurrence of extensive confederacy, or the effects of general intimidation. Your committee refer to the murder of Mr. Price, who, having taken a farm against the wishes of those who take upon them to regulate the rents of land, received a written intimation, which appears, from the evidence of a member of this house, to have been to the following effect:

'Liberty Hall.

'Take notice, that you have been 'tried and convicted of having taken '——— farm—you have been sentenced to death—you are to give up 'the farm, otherwise the warrant for 'your execution is in the hands of 'the executioner.

'Given at the council chamber.'

"This account, the member received from the brother of the deceased, who shewed him another letter to the same effect, which was served on a tenant of Mr. Price at the same time, who in consequence fled the country. Mr. Price was, within a few days, in the open fields at noon, fired at and murdered by a single individual, who was suffered to depart at his leisure, without any endeavour being made to detain him, though many people were at work at no great distance."

The report here describes and jus-

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tifies the conduct of the Iriſh courts martial.

The report next ſtates the impoſſibility of diſcloſing the means by which government has obtained its information, without endangering the perſons, and ruining their channels of intelligence. It notices the ſmall number of perſons impriſoned under the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act, and ſanctions their impriſonment, after having inquired the motives. The report concludes with this paragraph:

"Under theſe circumſtances, your committee cannot forbear ſubmitting to the wiſdom of the houſe the propriety of ſuch an act of indemnity, as may protect all perſons concerned in theſe commitments from the effects of any legal proceeding, without ſubjecting them to the neceſſity, either of ſuffering for a conduct in itſelf meritorious, or of diſcloſing, in their own defence, thoſe particulars, which every conſideration of humanity, good faith, and policy, muſt render it their duty to conceal."

The appendix conſiſts of the hand-bill calling the meeting at Kennington-common; papers inflaming the minds of the people on account of the high price of proviſions; oaths binding to maintain the rights of man; an extract from Spence's pamphlet, recommending that land ſhould not be the property of individuals, but of pariſhes, and the rents common to all, and that a convention ſhould meet to enforce the plan. There are alſo ſeveral inflammatory papers from the United Iriſh, and an addreſs to the Iriſh ſailors of the ſame nature, together with long depoſitions of perſons employed on courts martial in Ireland; and depoſitions, and other evidence, reſpecting the general ſtate of that country.

A GENERAL

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A GENERAL BILL

OF

CHRISTENINGS AND BURIALS,

From DECEMBER 9, 1800, to DECEMBER 15, 1801.

Christened { Males 9400 / Females 8414 } 17814. Buried { Males 9661 / Females 9713 } 19374.

Decreased in the burials this year, 3694.

Died under 2 years	5395	30 and 40	1924	80 and 90	484	107	0
Between 2 and 5	2063	40 and 50	2128	90 and 100	64	118	0
5 and 10	843	50 and 60	1817	100	1	120	0
10 and 20	639	60 and 70	1482	101	5		
20 and 30	1481	70 and 80	1047	102	1		

DISEASES.

Abortive and ſtill-born	407	Croup	14	Palpitation of the heart	1	Bruiſed	4
Abſceſs	24	Deſpair	1	Palſy	79	Burnt	7
Aged	1562	Diabetes	1	Pleuriſy	22	Choaked	1
Ague	4	Dropſy	865	Quinſy	5	Drowned	120
Apoplexy and ſudden-ly	238	Eaten by Lice	1	Rash	0	Exceſſive drinking	5
Aſthma and Phthi-ſic	437	Evil	7	Rheumatiſm	5	Executed *	11
Bedridden	2	Fevers of all kinds	2908	Rickets	0	Found dead	9
Bleeding	14	Fiſtula	3	Scurvy	4	Fractured	3
Burſten and rup-ture	21	Flux	10	Small pox	1461	Frighted	0
Cancer	57	French pox	14	Sore throat	4	Frozen	0
Chicken Pox	2	Gout	84	Sores and ulcers	6	Killed by falls and ſe-veral other acci-dents	59
Childbed	190	Gravel, ſtone, and ſtrangury	12	Spaſm	4	Killed themſelves	31
Colds	6	Grief	3	Stoppage in the ſto-mach	6	Murdered	4
Colick, gripes, and twiſting of the guts	8	Headmouldſhot, horſe ſhoe head, and wa-ter in the head	72	Surfeit	1	Poiſoned	3
Conſumption	4695	Head-ach	0	Swelling	3	Scalded	5
Convulſions	3931	Jaundice	79	Swine pox	0	Shot	0
Cough and hooping-cough	428	Jaw locked	4	Teeth	333	Smothered	0
Cramp	1	Inflammation	557	Thruſh	28	Starved	5
		Lethargy	0	Tympany	0	Sprain	0
		Livergrown	4	Vomiting and looſe-neſs	1	Strangled	0
		Lunatic	127	Worms	9	Suffocated	1
		Meaſles	136				
		Miſcarriage	1			Total	269
		Mortification	223				

CASUALTIES.

Bit by a mad dog	0
Broken limbs	1

* There have been executed, in Middleſex and Surrey, 23; of which number 11 only have been reported to be buried (as ſuch) within the bills of mortality.

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Average Prices of Corn, for the Year 1801.

	Wheat		Barley.		Oats.		Beans.	
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
January . . .	17	2	10	1	5	5	9	9
February . . .	17	8	10	5	5	7	10	1
March . . .	9	3	11	0	5	9	10	0
April	18	11	11	0	5	8	9	6
May	16	3	9	7	4	11	8	3
June	16	1	9	0	4	7	7	10
July	16	10	8	10	4	8	7	8
Auguſt . . .	15	2	7	6	4	5	6	11
September . .	11	1	6	3	3	8	6	4
October . . .	9	11	5	10	3	3	5	11
November . .	8	10	5	5	3	1	5	6
December . .	9	5	5	6	3	0	5	6
General Average	13	5	8	3	4	4	7	9

Liſt of French, Spaniſh, and Dutch Ships, loſt, taken, and deſtroyed, from the Commencement of the War in 1793, *to October,* 1801.

	French.	*Dutch.*	*Spaniſh.*	*Total.*
Ships of the Line -	45	25	11	81
Fifties - - - -	2	1	0	3
Frigates - - - -	133	31	20	184
Sloops - - - -	161	32	55	248
			Grand Total	516

PRICES

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PRICES OF STOCK, FOR THE YEAR 1801.

N. B. The highest and lowest Prices which each Stock bore during the Course of any Month, are put down opposite to that Month.

	Bank Stock	3 pr. Ct Redue.	3 per Ct. Consol.	4 per Ct. Consol.	5 pr. Ct. Navy.	5 per Ct 1797.	Long Ann.	Short Ann.	India Stock.	India Bds.	S. Sea Stock	Old Ann.	New Ann	Exch. Bills.	Omnium	Irish 5 per Ct.	Imp. 3 per Ct.	Eng. Lot. Tickets.
Jan.	162¼	62½	62	80½	96½	97	18½	5½	205⅛	c.	63½	—	62⅞	1s. pr.	2 pr.	94	61½	17 5 0
	149½	55¼	54¾	73¼	86½	87¼	16¼	5	187	5 pr.	62	—	57¼	1 dis.	3⅛ dis.	86	54	17 0 0
Feb.	153½	58⅛	57	77¼	91½	92¼	17¼	5⅜	189	7	62¼	56½	57	par.	—	88½	57	17 9 0
	150	56¼	55⅛	75⅜	89¼	90¼	17⅛	5¼	184	3 dis.	61¼	55	55½	8 dis.	—	87	54¾	17 2 0
March	162¼	56¼	58½	75½	96¼	91¼	17½	5⅛	194½	3	62¼	56½	55½	12	7 pr.	88¼	57½	21 5 0
	153	55¼	55⅛	75	90½	90⅞		5⅛	183½	2	—	56⅜	—	3	1½	88	55	17 8 0
April	170	—	61½	78⅛	97⅛	94¼	18⅛	5⅜	200½	2 pr.	66	—	59½	12	10½	91	57½	26 10 0
	159	—	57¼	77½	94¼	92⅞	17⅞		192½	—	65¼	—	—	2	3½	90⅜	56¾	15 9 0
May	169¾	60½	61½	79⅜	96⅞	95	18¼	5⅞	202½	—	67½	59⅞	60¼	7	10½	92½	58¾	15 12 0
	166	59½	60⅜	77¼	96¼	93⅞	18⅛		199½	—	65¼	—	—	3	8¼	90¼	57½	
June	168½	61⅜	62⅝	80	96¼	96	18½	5⅞	203¾	—	66¾	60⅞	—	4	10½	92	60	15 15 0
	166¼	60	60⅞	78¼	95⅜	93⅞	18⅛		200	—	—	—	—	3	8¼	90¾	58¾	15 12 0
July	168	61⅜	62½	80⅞	94	96¾	18½	5¼	201¾	3 pr.	—	61	57⅞	2	10⅛	93½	60¼	15 15 0
	165¼	59⅜	58	78	92	93	17⅞	5⅛	192	—	—	58⅜	57¼	1	6¼	90	57	
Aug.	169½	61½	61⅛	81	96¼	97¾	18⅞	5⅜	199	8 pr.	—	60⅜	59⅜	4	10¼	93½	60⅜	16 0 0
	167	59½	58⅛	79¼	93	94½	18⅛	5⅛	193	6	—	59½	58¼	1	7	90	58¼	15 15 0
Sept.	168½	61⅛	60⅝	81¼	96⅛	97⅜	18¾	5⅜	195¼	—	—	—	—	2	9¾	—	60	16 0 0
	177	—	58¼	81	93½	97¼	18⅝		191½	—	—	—	—	—	6¼	—	57¼	
Oct.	190	68⅜	69¼	86⅛	103	100¼	20	5¼	221	—	73	67½	—	12	25¼	100	67¾	16 4 0
	177½	67¼	59¼	85	94	98½	—	5⅛	209¼	—	—	—	—	1	7½	—	59	16 0 0
Nov.	190¾	67⅞	68⅜	85	103¼	99⅞	19⅞	5¼	215¾	—	—	—	68⅛	16	23	97½	—	16 6 0
	187	66⅜	67⅛	83¾	99	98	19⅜	5⅛	213	—	—	—	67¼	7	21	95½	—	16 4 0
Dec.	188½	67½	69¼	85⅜	100¾	98¼	19⅞	5¼	218½	—	73¼	—	—	8½	22¼	97⅛	66⅛	16 10 0
	187¼	66¾	67¼	83¾	99¼	97⅞	19½	5⅛	216	—	—	—	—	1	21¼	96	63⅜	16 6 0

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SUPPLIES granted by Parliament, for the Year 1801.

NAVY, &c.

	£.	s.	d.
February 17, 1801.			
That 135,000 seamen be employed for ten lunar months, commencing 26th March, 1801, including 30,000 marines.			
For wages for ditto	2,497,500	0	0
For victuals for ditto	2,565,000	0	0
For ordnance sea service on board the ships in which they are to serve	337,500	0	0
For wear and tear of such ships	4,050,000	0	0
For the ordinary of the navy, including half pay to sea and marine officers	637,418	5	8
For buildings and repairs of ships, and other extra works	733,960	0	0
For the expense of the transport service, and for the maintenance of prisoners of war in health at home and abroad	1,445,718	14	6
For the care and maintenance of sick prisoners of war	155,000	0	0
	£12,422,037	0	2

ARMY.

February 17, 1801.			
That 58,387 men be employed for land service, in Great Britain, Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney, including 5,797 invalids, from 25th March, 1801, to 24th December following.			
That 17,232 men be employed for land service in Ireland, including 661 invalids, from 1st January, 1801, to 24th December following.			
For guards, garrisons, and other land forces, in Great Britain, Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney	1,653,878	6	9
For land forces in Ireland	576,593	12	7
For forces in the plantations, including Gibraltar, Minorca, and other stations in the Mediterranean, the Cape of Good Hope, and New South Wales	1,724,377	0	4

For

	£.	s.	d.
For four troops of dragoons, and ſeventeen companies of foot, ſtationed in Great Britain for recruiting regiments ſerving in Eaſt India	88,003	9	2
For recruiting and contingencies for land forces, and extra forage for the cavalry	352,500	0	0
Ditto .... ditto .... in Ireland	319,748	13	5
For general and ſtaff officers, and officers of hoſpitals in Great Britain, Guernſey, and Jerſey	86,522	6	8
Ditto .... ditto .... in Ireland	48,197	5	4
For full pay to ſupernumerary officers	25,662	8	2
For allowances to the paymaſter-general, commiſſary-general of the muſters, &c. &c. in Great Britain	116,088	14	5
For allowances to the muſter-maſter-general, judge-advocate-general, &c. &c. in Ireland	6,416	0	6
For ſubſiſtence to innkeepers, &c. on quartering ſoldiers, and allowance to the land forces in Great Britain for ſmall beer	255,000	0	
For allowances to the land forces in Ireland for ſmall beer, &c.	115,984	12	4
For reduced officers of land forces and marines	138,979	7	1
For allowances to one private of reduced horſe guards, and to one ſuperannuated gentleman of the horſe guards	20	12	11
For half pay to regimental and warrant officers of land forces, and for allowance to retired chaplains in Ireland	14,855	2	5
On account of officers late in the ſervice of the ſtates general	1,000	0	0
Ditto .... of reduced officers of Britiſh American forces	52,500	0	0
For allowances to ſeveral reduced officers of ditto	7,500	0	0
For the in and out-penſioners of Chelſea hoſpital, and the expenſes of the hoſpital	148,382	0	6
Ditto .... of the royal hoſpital near Kilmainham, and for ditto	35,923	1	0
For penſions to widows of officers of the land forces in Great Britain	20,227	10	0
Ditto .... ditto .... in Ireland	5,042	4	8
For the barrack department in Great Britain	293,929	0	0
Ditto .... ditto .... in Ireland	339,708	13	5
For foreign corps in the ſervice of Great Britain	303,391	4	5
For an augmentation to the land forces in Great Britain of 10,321 men, including 1,257 invalids	656,388	8	6
For medicines, bedding, and hoſpital contingencies, for the forces in Ireland, and for the royal military infirmary in Dublin	21,372	19	9

June

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June 9.

	£.	s.	d.
On account of the purchaſe of land, and conſtruction of buildings, for a royal military college	30,000	0	0
For defraying the expenſes on account of certain premiſes at Chelſea, intended for a royal military aſylum for the reception of the children of ſoldiers	8,400	0	0

June 11.

To defray the extraordinary ſervices of the army in Great Britain	2,500,000	0	0
Ditto .... ditto .... in Ireland	600,000	0	0
	£ 10,495,992	13	7

MILITIA AND FENCIBLE CORPS.

February 17, 1801.

For the embodied militia and corps of fencible infantry in Great Britain, from 25th March, 1801, to 24th December following	973,431	8	9
Ditto .... ditto .... in Ireland	1,381,017	10	11
For contingencies for the embodied militia, and corps of fencible infantry in Great Britain	50,000	0	0
Ditto..... ditto .... in Ireland	34,451	3	0
For clothing for the embodied militia of Great Britain	122,667	1	3
For the volunteer corps of cavalry and infantry in Great Britain	455,000	0	0
Ditto .... ditto .... in Ireland	425,139	1	7

April 27.

For additional field officers to the ſeveral corps of militia in Ireland	11,167	6	11
Making proviſion for pay and clothing of the militia of England.			
Ditto .... for allowances to adjutants, ſergeant-majors, and ſergeants of the militia, diſembodied in purſuance of act 39, and 40 Geo. III.			
Ditto .... for allowances to ſubaltern officers of the militia, in time of peace.			
	£ 3,452,873	12	5

ORDNANCE.

February 17, 1801.

For ordnance land ſervice, for nine months, from 1ſt April to 31ſt December, 1801	1,083,375	17	7

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	£.	s.	d.
For ordnance land ſervice, not provided for in 1799 .	59,972	15	0
Ditto . . . . not provided for in 1800 . .	58,706	14	0
For ordnance ſervices in Ireland, from 5th January, 1801, to 4th January, 1802 . . .	299,907	9	5
	£1,481,962	16	0

MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES.

March 31, 1801.

To be applied in payment of a like ſum borrowed in Ireland on treaſury bills . *(Iriſh currency)*	522,200	0	0
To be paid to the accountant-general, for preparing and ſtating the public accounts of Ireland, laid before the houſe	313	16	11
Ditto . . . . to the deputy-accountant-general, for preparing the ſame for parliament . .	221	10	9
Ditto . . . . to the paymaſter of corn bounties .	738	9	3
Ditto . . . . to the examinator of ditto . .	184	12	4
To be paid to the inſpector-general of imports and exports in Ireland, for preparing accounts .	184	12	4
Ditto . . . . to the firſt clerk in his office for ditto .	129	4	7
Ditto . . . . to the examinator of exciſe in Ireland, for ditto	129	4	7
For defraying the expenſe of pratique in the port of Dublin	966	18	7½
Ditto . . . . of civil buildings in Ireland . .	29,538	9	3
Ditto . . . . of apprehending public offenders in Ireland	2,307	13	10
Ditto . . . . of the office of ſolicitor of criminal cauſes in Ireland	23,076	18	6
Ditto . . . . of proclamations and advertiſements in the Dublin Gazette	6,485	10	9
Ditto . . . . of printing certain ſtatutes in Ireland .	3,477	2	4
Ditto . . . of printing, ſtationary, and other diſburſements, for the public offices in Ireland . .	18,166	11	10
For defraying the incidental expenſes of the board of treaſury in Ireland	1,846	3	1
For defraying the expenſe of building further offices for the records of Ireland, and to diſcharge ſums due for building courts of juſtice . . .	5,538	9	3
To be applied in working a gold mine in the county of Wicklow	923	1	6
For clothing the battle-axe guards in Ireland .	683	1	6
For clothing the officers of arms and ſtate trumpeters in Ireland	1,002	9	3

To

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	£.	s.	d.
To be paid to the truſtees of the linen and hempen manufactures in Ireland	19,938	9	3
Ditto . . . . to the board of firſt fruits in Ireland, for building and re-building churches	4,615	7	8
Ditto . . . . to the Dublin ſociety, for promoting huſbandry and other uſeful arts	5,076	18	6
Ditto . . . . to the corporation, for paving, cleanſing, and lighting, the city of Dublin	9,230	15	5
Ditto . . . . to the commiſſioners for making wide and convenient ſtreets in ditto	4,153	16	11
For defraying the charge of the incorporated ſociety in Dublin for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant ſchools in Ireland	18,213	4	7
For defraying the charge of the foundling hoſpital in Ireland	13,846	3	1
Ditto . . . . of the Hibernian marine nurſery for ſailors children	1,846	3	1
Ditto . . . . of ſupporting the Weſtmorland Lock hoſpital in Dublin	6,183	13	10
Ditto . . . . of the Hibernian ſchool for ſoldiers children	3,655	7	9
Ditto . . . . of the Roman Catholic ſeminary in Ireland	7,384	12	4
Ditto . . . . of ſupporting the houſe of induſtry for relief of the poor in Dublin	15,594	9	3
Ditto . . . . of the ſociety for promoting the knowledge and practice of the Chriſtian religion in Ireland	276	18	6
Ditto . . . . of the female orphan houſe near Dublin, for deſerted female children	461	10	9

April 14.

To be applied in promoting the purpoſes of the farming ſocieties of Ireland	1,846	3	1
Ditto . . . . towards completing additional buildings at the repoſitory of the Dublin ſociety, and botanic garden	4,153	16	11

April 27.

Plantations.	For the civil eſtabliſhment of Upper Canada	7,950	0	0
	Ditto . . . . of Nova Scotia	5,915	0	0
	Ditto . . . . of New Brunſwick	2,420	10	10
	Ditto . . . . of prince Edward iſland	1,900	0	0
	Ditto . . . . of the iſland of Cape Breton	957	16	0½
	Ditto . . . . of Newfoundland	1,641	8	5
	Ditto . . . . of the Bahama iſlands	4,100	0	0
	Ditto . . . . of the Bermudas or Somers iſlands	301	18	4½
	Ditto . . . . of the iſland of Dominica	600	0	0
	Ditto . . . . of New South Wales	7,146	0	0

For

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	£.	s.	d.
For defraying the charge of the ſuperintendance of aliens	7,620	0	0
Ditto . . . . of the extraordinary expenſes incurred for proſecutions relating to the coin	2,270	18	2
Ditto . . . . of the expenſes likely to be incurred for confining and maintaining convicts at home	37,317	6	5
For defraying the expenſes likely to be incurred for printing the journals, &c. of the houſe of commons	10,000	0	0
Ditto . . . . the charge of the works and repairs of the military roads and bridges in North Britain	5,000	0	0
To diſcharge the probable amount of bills expected from, or on account of, New South Wales, excluſive of the civil eſtabliſhment	25,000	0	0
For defraying the expenſes of the commiſſion under the ſeventh article of the American treaty	3,550	0	0
To make good money iſſued purſuant to addreſſes	21,808	6	3
For relief of the ſuffering clergy and laity of France, Touloneſe and Corſican emigrants, certain St. Domingo ſufferers, and American loyaliſts	208,772	0	0
For foreign and other ſecret ſervices	15,000	0	0
To make good money iſſued for additional allowances to clerks in the office for auditing public accounts	2,482	16	0
Ditto . . . . towards carrying into effect a plan for inquiring into the mendicity of the metropolis	500	0	0
Ditto . . . . for expenſes incurred upon a plan for the improvement of the port of London	253	12	7
Ditto . . . . for continuing the index to the journals of the houſe of lords	116	16	0
Ditto . . . . to diſcharge fees on paſſing public accounts	3,500	0	0
Ditto . . . . for expenſes at the parliament-office	374	4	8
Ditto . . . . to pay bills drawn on account of New South Wales, due in 1800	6,756	10	5
Ditto . . . . ditto, which became due in 1801	7,901	10	4
Ditto . . . . to pay artificers employed in various works about the houſes of parliament	2,000	0	0
Ditto . . . . to pay fees on paſſing a commiſſion appointing commiſſioners to inquire into the ſtate of the Cold-bath-fields priſon	175	3	2
Ditto . . . . for medicines ſent to New South Wales	895	16	0
To make good the ſums paid for diſcount on prompt payments to the loan and lottery for 1800	177,330	18	10
To the bank for receiving the contributions to ditto	17,418	14	7
To make good money paid for ſalaries of officers, and incidental expenſes of the commiſſion for reduction of the national debt	902	14	6

To

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	£.	s.	d.
To make good money paid to the officers of the exchequer for extra trouble in making out exchequer bills	1,000	0	0
Ditto . . . . for a clerk employed on various bufineſſes relative to American claims	132	5	6
For the board of agriculture	3,000	0	0
For ſupport of the veterinary college	1,500	0	0
For ſupporting the Britiſh forts and ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa	20,000	0	0

May 19.

To enable his majeſty to afford aſſiſtance to the queen of Portugal	500,000	0	0

June 11.

Towards enabling the truſtees of the Britiſh muſeum to carry on the execution of the truſts repoſed in them by parliament	3,000	0	0
To make good money iſſued to the chairman of the committees of the houſe of lords	2,701	9	0
For aſſiſting the Levant company in carrying on their trade	5,000	0	0
To make good money iſſued purſuant to addreſſes	10,891	11	10
Ditto . . . . for additional allowances to clerks in the office for auditing public accounts	827	12	0
Ditto . . . . to complete the purchaſe of houſes neceſſary for carrying on the works at the new Marſhalſea	528	9	0
Ditto . . . . for premiums to be paid for eſſays on breaking-up of graſs lands	800	0	0
For the civil eſtabliſhment at Sierra Leone	4,000	0	0
Sterling	£ 1,155,752	18	3½
	and		
Iriſh currency	£ 522,20	0	0

NATIONAL DEBT.

June 11, 1801.

To the bank of England, to be by them placed to the account of the commiſſioners for reduction of the national debt	£ 200,000	0	0

EXCHEQUER

EXCHEQUER BILLS.

February 21, 1801.	£.	s.	d.
For paying off Exchequer bills, made out on credit of the duties on income, granted by act 39 Geo. III.	1,100,000	0	0
Ditto .... made out on credit of the duties on goods imported and exported, granted by act 38 Geo. III.	250,000	0	0
Ditto .... made out by virtue of act 39 and 40 Geo. III. on credit of the supplies granted for 1800 .	4,000,000	0	0
April 27.			
For paying interest on sundry exchequer bills, made out by virtue of several acts of 39 and 40 Geo. III.	305,484	7	2
June 11.			
For paying off exchequer bills, made out by virtue of act 39 and 40 Geo. III. for raising £ 3,500,000 thereby	3,500,000	0	0
Ditto .... by virtue of act for raising £ 3,000,000	3,000,000	0	0
Ditto .... by virtue of act for raising a further sum of £ 3,000,000	3,000,000	0	0
	£ 15,155,484	7	2

VOTE OF CREDIT.

June 11, 1801.			
To enable his majesty to take such measures as the exigency of affairs may require . . .	£ 2,000,000	0	0

RECAPITULATION.

Navy	12,422,037	0	2
Army	10,495,992	13	7
Militia and fencibles . . .	3,452,173	12	5
Ordnance	1,481,962	16	0
Miscellaneous services	1,677,952	18	3
National debt	200,000	0	0
Exchequer bills	15,155,484	7	2
Vote of credit	2,000,000	0	0
Total of supply .	£ 46,886,303	7	7

WAYS

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WAYS and MEANS for raising the SUPPLY.

GRANTS.

February 19, 1801.

For raising £ 28,000,000 by annuities, whereof the charges of £ 25,500,000 are to be defrayed on the part of Great Britain, and £ 2,500,000 on the part of Ireland . . . . £ 28,000,000 0 0

February 21.

For granting an additional principal sum of five shillings in £ 3 *per centum* reduced annuities, for every £ 100 contributed towards the loan of £ 28,000,000.

April 2.

For applying part of the supplies granted by the parliament of Ireland, for the service of the year, ending at Lady-day, 1801.

For establishing in Ireland one or more lottery or lotteries, under such regulations as shall be appointed by the lord lieutenant, &c.

For raising £ 701,250 by a lottery . . . £ 701,250 0 0

April 30.

That the charge of the pay and clothing of the militia in England be defrayed out of the land-tax.

That the allowances to adjutants, &c. of the militia, disembodied in pursuance of act 39 and 40 Geo. III. be defrayed out of the same.

That the allowances to certain subaltern officers of the militia in time of peace be defrayed out of the same.

June 16.

	£.	s.	d.
For applying £ 4,000,000 out of the moneys arising by virtue of act 39 Geo. III. for granting certain duties on income	4,000,000	0	0
Ditto . . . . £ 1,200,000 out of the moneys arising by virtue of act 38 Geo. III. for granting certain duties on goods imported and exported, and on tonnage of ships and vessels . . .	1,200,000	0	0
Ditto . . . . £ 3,100,000 out of the moneys that shall arise of the surplus of the consolidated fund .	3,100,000	0	0
Ditto . . . . £ 433,333. 6s. 8d. remaining of the sum granted in 1800, to fulfil engagements with the emperor of Germany	433,333	6	8

For

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	£.	s.	d.
For applying £65,671. 4s. remaining of the sum granted in 1800, for charge of the troops of the elector of Bavaria	65,671	4	0
Ditto .... £65,837. 19s. 7½d. being the surplus of the grants for 1800	65,837	19	7½
Ditto .... £50,000 out of the moneys that shall arise from interest of land-tax contracted for	50,000	0	0
Ditto .... £4,080. 11s. 6¼d. reserved in the exchequer for particular services since the 10th of May, 1787	4,080	11	6¼
Ditto .... £8,280. 16s. 11¼d. remaining in the exchequer of contributions to lotteries granted prior to 1799	8,280	16	11¼
For raising an additional sum of £2,000,000, by exchequer bills	2,000,000	0	0
For raising £3,500,000 by ditto	3,500,000	0	0
For raising £3,000,000 by ditto	3,000,000	0	0
For raising a further sum of £3,000,000 by ditto	3,000,000	0	0
Total ways and means	£48,427,203	18	10

Taxes imposed in the Year 1801.

1. *Duties on Timber, Sugar, &c.*

February 19, 1801.

For charging additional duties on timber, &c. imported into Great Britain from any part of Europe; except on goods, wares, or merchandize, the growth or produce of Ireland, and imported directly from thence.

For repealing certain duties on sugar imported into Great Britain — charging additional duties thereon—and, allowing a drawback and bounties on exportation.

For charging an additional duty on raisins imported into Great Britain.

For charging a duty on pepper delivered out of warehouse, to be used and consumed in Great Britain.

For charging an additional duty on lead exported from the united kingdom.

February 21.

For charging a duty on pepper which shall have been warehoused in Great Britain, and exported from thence.

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2. Duties on Tea, Paper, and printed Stuffs.

February 19.

For charging an additional duty of excise on tea sold by the East India company—and, granting a drawback thereof on exportation.

For charging additional duties of customs on paper, pasteboard, millboard, and scaleboard, imported into Great Britain, except from Ireland.

For charging additional duties of excise on ditto, made in Great Britain; or made in Ireland, and imported from thence.

For charging an additional duty of customs on printed, painted, or stained, paper for hangings, imported into Great Britain, except from Ireland.

For charging a duty of excise on Irish printed, painted, or stained paper, imported into Great Britain from Ireland.

For charging an additional duty of customs on books imported into Great Britain, except from Ireland.

For charging an additional excise duty on books, and on maps or prints, imported into Great Britain from Ireland.

For allowing the said duties of excise on paper to be drawn back on exportation—and, a certain drawback on the exportation of printed and ruled books.

For charging an additional excise duty on linens and stuffs wove in Great Britain, which shall be printed, painted, stained, or dyed.

Ditto .... on Irish printed, painted, or dyed, Irish-made linens and stuffs, imported into Great Britain from Ireland—and,

Allowing the same to be drawn back on exportation.

3. Duties on Horses.

February 19.

For charging additional duties upon persons keeping and using horses.

4. Duties of Postage.

February 19.

For repealing the rates of postage now payable—and,

Charging new duties for the port and conveyance of letters by the general post within Great Britain—

Ditto .... sent by the penny post within the cities of London and Westminster.

For charging additional duties upon the port and conveyance of letters by the post to or from any part of the united kingdom, from or to any places out of the said kingdom not within his majesty's dominions.

For charging additional duties upon the port and conveyance of letters by packet boats from or to the ports of Holyhead and Milford Haven.

5. Duties

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5. Duties on Bills of Exchange, Notes, Deeds, &c.

February 19.

For charging additional ſtamp duties on bills of exchange, promiſſory or other notes, and inſurances; and on certain indentures, leaſes, bonds, and other deeds.

February 21.

For granting a further allowance by way of diſcount on the ſum paid for duties impoſed on newſpapers.

6. Duties on Tea, Sugar, and Coals, in Ireland.

April 2.

For repealing the duties now payable on tea imported into Ireland, and granting other duties.

For charging additional duties on ſugar imported into Ireland.

For charging an additional duty on all Britiſh coals imported into Ireland.

For allowing a drawback of the ſaid duties on tea, ſugar, and coals, on the exportation thereof from Ireland.

7. Duties on Spirits in Ireland.

April 2.

For charging a duty on ſpirits or ſtrong waters made in Great Britain from ſugar, or ſugar waſh, and imported into Ireland.

For repealing a certain duty on ſpirits made or diſtilled from ſugar in Ireland—and, charging a new duty on ſtrong waters, or ſpirits, made and diſtilled in Ireland from ſugar or ſugar waſh.

For repealing the drawback now allowed on ſugar uſed in making ſugar waſh.

April 28.

For allowing a drawback on the exportation of ſpirits made or diſtilled from ſugar or ſugar waſh in Ireland.

April 30.

For charging an additional countervailing duty upon ſpirits diſtilled from waſh made from ſugar in Ireland, and imported into England.

8. Duties on Bonds, Bills of Exchange, &c. in Ireland.

May 14.

For charging additional ſtamp duties in Ireland, upon every contract, bond, or other obligatory inſtrument, conditioned for the payment of money.

Ditto .... upon bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, &c.

Ditto .... upon inſurances for inſuring ſhips, goods, &c. from the danger of, or other perils at, ſea.

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9. *Duties on Wills, &c. and on Dice, Cards, and Ale Licences.*

May 21.

For charging additional duties on probates of wills or letters of administration—also on deeds, dice, playing cards, and ale licences.

10. *Duties on Cards.*

June 16.

For charging an additional duty on playing cards imported into Great Britain (except from Ireland).

For charging a duty on cards imported into Great Britain from Ireland.

Public Acts passed in the First Session of the First Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

41 *George* III. 1801.

An act to suspend, until the 25th day of March, 1801, so much of an act, made in the last session of parliament, intituled, "An act to prevent, until the 6th day of November, 1801, and from thence to the end of six weeks from the commencement of the then next session of parliament, the manufacturing of any fine flour from wheat or other grain, and the making of any bread solely from the fine flour of wheat; and to repeal an act passed in the thirty-sixth year of the reign of his present majesty, for permitting bakers to make and sell certain sorts of bread, and to make more effectual provision for the same;" as relates to other grain than wheat; and for indemnifying persons who may have dressed, sold, or used any meal or flour of such other grain, finer than is prescribed by the said act.

To repeal an act, made in the last session of parliament, intituled, "An act to prevent, until the 6th day of November, 1801, and from thence to the end of six weeks from the commencement of the then next session of parliament, the manufacturing of any fine flour from wheat or other grain, and the making of any bread solely from the fine flour of wheat; and to repeal an act passed in the thirty-sixth year of the reign of his present majesty, for permitting bakers to make and sell certain sorts of bread, and to make more effectual provision for the same;" and to indemnify millers and other persons who have dressed, sold, or used any meal, or flour of a finer description than allowed by the said act.

For raising the sum of twenty-eight millions, by way of annuities.

To enable the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury to issue exchequer bills, on the credit of such aids or supplies as have been or shall be granted by parliament, for the service of the year 1801.

To enable his majesty to grant a certain annuity to captain sir Sidney Smith, in consideration of the eminent

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nent ſervices which he has rendered during his command on the coaſt of Egypt.

For increaſing the number of field officers of the ſeveral regiments of militia in Ireland.

For repealing the rates and duties of poſtage in Great Britain, and granting other rates and duties in lieu thereof, and on letters conveyed to or from any part of the united kingdom from or to any place out of the ſaid kingdom, and by packet boats from or to the ports of Holyhead and Milford-haven.

For granting to his majeſty certain additional duties on paper, paſteboard, millboard, and ſcaleboard, made in or imported into Great Britain; and on tea imported into and ſold in Great Britain.

For granting to his majeſty certain additional duties on horſes in Great Britain; and for exempting from duty horſes kept for the purpoſe of huſbandry, by perſons holding farms under a certain value.

For granting to his majeſty additional ſtamp duties on bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, and inſurances; and on certain indentures, leaſes, bonds, or other deeds.

For puniſhing mutiny and deſertion; and for the better payment of the army and their quarters.

To amend an act made in the thirty-ſixth year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, intituled, "An act to permit bakers to make and ſell certain ſorts of bread."

For increaſing the bounties granted by an act of the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, on flour imported from America, in ſhips which ſhall have cleared out between certain periods.

For amending and further continuing, until the 24th day of June, 1801, two acts, paſſed in that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, for the ſuppreſſion of the rebellion which ſtill exiſts within that kingdom, and for the protection of the perſons and properties of his majeſty's faithful ſubjects within the ſame.

To continue, until the 24th day of June, 1801, an act, made in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament of Ireland, intituled, "An act to empower the lord lieutenant, or other chief governor or governors of Ireland, to apprehend and detain ſuch perſons as he or they ſhall ſuſpect for conſpiring againſt his majeſty's perſon and government."

To prohibit, until the 25th day of March, 1802, the making of malt, and the diſtilling of ſpirits, from corn or grain in Ireland.

For continuing, until the 25th day of March, 1802, certain acts of the laſt ſeſſion of the parliament of Ireland, for granting duties to his majeſty.

For the regulation of his majeſty's marine forces while on ſhore, until the 25th day of March, 1802.

For reviving and continuing, until the 1ſt day of October, 1801, ſo much of an act made in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, as relates to the reducing and better collecting the duties payable on the importation of ſtarch; for reviving, continuing until ſix weeks after the commencement of the next ſeſſion of parliament, and amending, an act made in the thirty-ninth year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, for enabling his majeſty to permit goods to be imported into Great Britain in neutral ſhips; for reviving, and

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continuing until the 25th day of March, 1804, and from thence until the expiration of six weeks after the commencement of the then next session of parliament, an act made in the thirty-seventh year of the reign of his present majesty, for authorizing his majesty to make regulations respecting the trade and commerce to and from the Cape of Good Hope; and for reviving and making perpetual an act, made in the thirty-third year of the reign of his present majesty, for preventing offences in obstructing, destroying, or damaging ships, and in obstructing seamen and others from pursuing their lawful occupations.

To extend, until the 29th day of September, 1801, the provisions of an act, made in the thirteenth year of the reign of his present majesty, intituled, "An act for the better cultivation, improvement, and regulation of the common arable fields, wastes, and commons of pasture, in this kingdom," and for encouraging the cultivation of potatoes in open and common field lands.

For permitting East India goods prohibited to be worn or used in Great Britain, and warehoused, in pursuance of an act made in the thirty-ninth year of the reign of his present majesty, to be removed by land carriage to certain ports, for the purpose of being exported to the British colonies or plantations in the West Indies.

To render valid indentures of apprenticeship of poor children and others, made upon improper stamps, upon certain conditions; and to indemnify all persons who may have incurred penalties thereby.

For the better collection of rates made for the relief of the poor.

For the indemnifying of persons injured by the forcible pulling down and demolishing of mills, or of works thereunto belonging, by persons unlawfully and riotously assembled.

For the better regulation of the office of master of the rolls, in that part of the united kingdom called Ireland; and for augmenting the salary annexed to the said office.

For reviving and further continuing, until six weeks after the commencement of the next session of parliament, several acts, made in the thirty-eighth, thirty-ninth, and fortieth years of his present majesty's reign, and in the last session of parliament, for empowering his majesty to secure and detain such persons as his majesty shall suspect are conspiring against his person and government.

For granting to his majesty a certain sum of money for the service of Great Britain, to be raised by a lottery.

For granting to his majesty certain duties of customs on timber, sugar, raisins, and pepper, imported into, and on lead exported from, Great Britain.

For granting an additional duty on English spirits imported into Scotland, and for allowing, until forty days after the commencement of the next session of parliament, the distillation of spirits in Scotland, from melasses or sugar, at a lower rate of duty.

To revive and continue, until six weeks after the commencement of the next session of parliament, an act made in the thirty-sixth year of the reign of his present majesty, intituled, "An act for the more effectually preventing seditious meetings and assemblies."

To revive and continue, until the 5th

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5th day of July, 1801, an act, made in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, intituled, "An act for ſhortening, until the 25th day of March, 1801, the time of keeping in ſteep, for malting, barley damaged by rain in the laſt harveſt."

For granting to his majeſty ſeveral ſums of money for defraying the charge of certain permanent ſervices in that part of the united kingdom called Ireland.

For repealing certain duties upon tea imported into Ireland, and for granting other duties in lieu thereof; and for granting additional duties on ſugar and coals imported into Ireland.

For granting bounties on the importation into Ireland of wheat, barley, rye, oats, and Indian corn, and of barley, rye, oats, Indian meal, and wheaten flour and rice.

For increaſing the rates of ſubſiſtence to be paid to inn-keepers and others on quartering ſoldiers.

For enabling the lord lieutenant, or other chief governor or governors of Ireland, to prohibit, for a limited time, ſo as ſuch prohibition ſhall not endure beyond the expiration of ſix weeks from the commencement of the next ſeſſion of parliament, the exportation from Ireland of corn or potatoes, and of all proviſions whatſoever, and to permit, for ſuch limited time, the importation into Ireland of corn and fiſh, and all proviſions whatſoever, without payment of duty; and for indemnifying ſuch perſons as have acted for the ſervice of the public, in adviſing or carrying into execution certain proclamations of the lord lieutenant and council of Ireland.

For making proviſion for the entry and return voyages of certain ſhips which may import rice or other grain from the Eaſt Indies, and to authorize the importation of rice or other grain into Ireland, in ſhips coming directly from the Eaſt Indies.

To amend ſo much of an act paſſed in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, intituled, "An act to repeal an act paſſed in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, intituled, 'An act to prevent unlawful combinations of workmen,' and to ſubſtitute other proviſions in lieu thereof;" as relates to the forms of conviction therein referred to.

For the more effectually preventing the forgery of bank notes, bank bills of exchange, and bank poſt bills.

To permit perſons in holy orders to keep one horſe only for the purpoſe of riding, without being ſubject to the duty granted by an act of the thirty-eighth year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, under certain limitations.

For allowing, until the 20th day of Auguſt, 1801, the importation into Ireland of Britiſh and foreign hops, at a like duty as is payable in Great Britain for the ſame.

To exempt elephant oil, ſold by auction in Great Britain, from the duty impoſed on ſuch ſales.

For defraying the charge of the pay and clothing of the militia in England, for the year 1801.

For reviving, continuing until the 20th day of May, 1802, and amending an act made in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, intituled, "An act to repeal the duties on ſugar and coffee exported, granted by an act

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paſſed in the thirty-ninth year of his preſent majeſty's reign, for allowing Britiſh plantation ſugar to be warehouſed; for reviving ſo much of an act made in the thirty-ſecond year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, as relates to the aſcertaining the average price of ſugar, and regulating the allowance of drawback, on the exportation thereof; and for allowing certain drawbacks on ſugar exported, until the 10th day of May, 1801.

To continue, until the 29th day of September, 1802, ſeveral laws paſſed in the parliament of Ireland, relating to the regulating and extending the tobacco trade, and ſecuring the duties payable on tobacco; to the collecting and ſecuring the duties upon malt; to the ſecuring the duties on auctions and glaſs bottles, and on paper printed, painted, or ſtained, to ſerve for hangings; to the regulating the trade of rectifying ſpirits and preventing frauds by rectifiers; to the further improvement of the fiſheries on the coaſts of Ireland; to the better collection of the duties on tanned hides and ſkins, and on vellum, and parchment; to the better regulating the granting of permits and certificates for the conveyance of exciſeable goods; to the regulating the payment of bounties on the exportation of certain manufactures; to the better ſecuring the duties on licences to perſons engaged in certain trades; to the better regulating the collection of his majeſty's revenue, and preventing frauds therein; and to revive and continue until the ſaid 29th day of September, an act paſſed in the parliament of Ireland in the thirteenth and fourteenth years of his preſent majeſty's reign, for granting annuities in manner therein provided.

To render valid all acts done in execution of three ſeveral orders of his majeſty in council, relating to bills of exchange, drawn by perſons in Ruſſia, and to freight of Ruſſian, Swediſh, and Daniſh ſhips.

To amend and continue until the 29th day of September, 1802, an act paſſed in Ireland, in the fortieth year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, intituled, "An act for regulating the trade of a diſtiller, and for ſecuring the duties payable on home-made ſpirits."

To continue until the 29th day of September, 1802, and amend the ſeveral laws in Ireland, to regulate the iſſuing of licences for the ſale of wine, ale, beer, cider, and ſpirituous liquors by retail, and for preventing the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors.

To indemnify perſons who have omitted to qualify themſelves for offices or employments in Ireland, according to law.

For granting to his majeſty a certain ſum of money for defraying the charge of the workhouſe and foundling hoſpital in Dublin, for the year 1801; and for amending an act, paſſed in the parliament of Ireland, in the fortieth year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, intituled, "An act for the better management, ſupport, and maintenance of the foundling hoſpital in Dublin; and for amending and further continuing an act, paſſed in the thirty-eighth year of his preſent majeſty's reign, intituled, 'An act for the better management of the workhouſe and foundling hoſpital in Dublin."

To permit Portugal wine to be landed

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landed and warehouſed without payment of duties, under certain reſtrictions, for a limited time.

For declaring what perſons ſhall be diſabled from ſitting and voting in the houſe of commons of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; and alſo for carrying into effect, part of the fourth article of the union of Great Britain and Ireland, by providing in what caſes perſons holding offices or places of profit under the crown of Ireland, ſhall be incapable of being members of the houſe of commons of the parliament of the ſaid united kingdom.

To explain and amend an act, paſſed in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, intituled, "An act to repeal ſo much of an act, paſſed in the ſecond year of king James I. as prohibits the uſe of horſe hides in making boots and ſhoes, and for better preventing the damaging of raw hides and ſkins in the flaying thereof."

To continue, until the 5th day of July, 1802, an act, paſſed in the thirty-eighth year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, for the further encouragement of the trade and manufactures of the Iſle of Man, and for improving the revenue thereof; and alſo to repeal and amend certain of the proviſions of the ſaid act.

To revive and continue, until the 25th day of March, 1802, ſo much of an act, made in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, as grants certain allowances to adjutants, ſergeant-majors, and ſergeants of militia, diſembodied under an act of the ſame ſeſſion of parliament, and to amend the ſaid act.

For making allowances in certain caſes to ſubaltern officers of the militia in time of peace.

For the better prevention of the forgery of the notes and bills of exchange of perſons carrying on the buſineſs of bankers.

For granting to his majeſty, until the 25th day of March, 1802, additional ſtamp duties in Ireland, on bonds, bills of exchange, and promiſſory notes, and on certain inſurances therein mentioned; and for the relief of perſons in Ireland, holding obligatory inſtruments called kerry bonds, which have been executed without being duly ſtamped.

For ſettling and ſecuring a certain annuity on lady Abercromby, baroneſs Abercromby of Aboukir, and the two next perſons to whom the title of baron Abercromby ſhall deſcend, in conſideration of the eminent merits of the late right honourable general ſir Ralph Abercromby.

To explain and amend an act, paſſed in the thirty-fourth year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, intituled, "An act to enable the lords commiſſioners of his majeſty's treaſury, to aſcertain what ſum ſhall be paid into his majeſty's exchequer, in full ſatisfaction of the debt due on the mortgage made by the late John Gardner Cemeys, eſquire, in truſt for the late right honourable Richard Rigby, in caſe it ſhall appear to the ſaid lords commiſſioners that it will be neceſſary to reſort to the mortgaged premiſes, in order to recover the balance due from the ſaid Richard Rigby to his majeſty.

For further continuing, until the 25th day of March, 1802, an act, paſſed in the preſent ſeſſion of parliament, intituled, "An act for amending

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amending and further continuing, until the 24th day of June, 1801, two acts, paſſed in that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, for the ſuppreſſion of the rebellion which ſtill exiſts within that kingdom, and for the protection of the perſons and property of his majeſty's faithful ſubjects within the ſame.

To exempt from the payment of certain duties, ſuch members of both houſes of parliament ſerving for that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, and ſuch other perſons herein deſcribed, as may have only an occaſional reſidence in Great Britain.

To remove doubts reſpecting the eligibility of perſons in holy orders to ſit in the houſe of commons.

For the further relief of debtors, with reſpect to the impriſonment of their perſons.

For granting to his majeſty the ſum of two hundred thouſand pounds, to be iſſued and paid to the governor and company of the bank of England, to be by them placed to the account of the commiſſioners for the reduction of the national debt of Great Britain.

For indemnifying ſuch perſons, as, ſince the 1ſt day of February, 1793, have acted in the apprehending, impriſoning, or detaining in cuſtody, in Great Britain, of perſons ſuſpected of high treaſon or treaſonable practices.

To amend ſeveral acts for raiſing a militia force in Scotland.

For altering the laws now in force, relating to the importation and exportation of copper; for repealing certain duties and drawbacks on ſuch importation and exportation; and for ſubſtituting new duties and drawbacks in lieu thereof.

For transferring the receipt and management of certain duties on certificates for wearing hair-powder, or uſing armorial bearings, from the commiſſioners of ſtamps to the commiſſioners for the affairs of taxes; and alſo for making further proviſions in reſpect to the ſaid duties ſo transferred.

For the relief of certain inſolvent debtors.

For transferring the receipt and management of the duties on licences for uſing and exerciſing the trade and buſineſs of a horſe-dealer from the commiſſioners of ſtamps to the commiſſioners for the affairs of taxes; and alſo for making further proviſions in reſpect to the ſaid duties ſo transferred.

For extending the period of preference granted and continued by ſeveral acts to bodies corporate and perſons for the redemption of the land-tax, and to amend an act of the thirty-eighth year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, for granting an aid to his majeſty by a land-tax.

For directing the application of ſeveral ſums granted by parliament to the Dublin ſociety, and to the farming ſocieties in Ireland.

For regulating, until the 20th day of May, 1802, the allowance of drawback on the exportation from Ireland of Britiſh plantation ſugar; and for allowing certain drawbacks on ſugar exported from Ireland; and for allowing Britiſh plantation ſugar to be warehouſed in Ireland.

To permit the exportation of tea to Ireland without payment of any duty, under certain reſtrictions.

To

To authorize the iſſuing of commiſſions and letters of marque and reprisal againſt his majeſty's enemies, to ſuch ſhips and veſſels, belonging to his majeſty, as are or may be employed in the ſervice of the boards of cuſtoms and exciſe, and other public boards in this kingdom.

For allowing, until the 1ſt day of Auguſt, 1802, the importation of certain fiſh from Newfoundland, and the coaſt of Labrador, and for granting a bounty thereon.

To extend the powers of an act, paſſed in the twenty-ſeventh year of the reign of his late majeſty king George II. intituled, "An act for the better ſecuring to conſtables and others, the expences of conveying offenders to gaol, and for allowing the charges of poor perſons bound to give evidence againſt felons;" and for allowing to high conſtables, in that part of the united kingdom, called England, their charges in certain caſes.

For the better regulation of public notaries in England.

To indemnify all perſons who have printed, publiſhed, or diſperſed, or who ſhall publiſh or diſperſe, any papers printed under the authority of any head officer of ſtate, or of public boards, or other public authorities, from all penalties incurred by reaſon of the name and place of abode of the printer of ſuch papers not being printed thereon.

For enabling his majeſty to raiſe the ſum of two millions, for the uſes and purpoſes therein mentioned.

For raiſing the ſum of ſix millions five hundred thouſand pounds, by loan or exchequer bills, for the ſervice of Great Britain, for the year 1801.

For raiſing the ſum of three millions, by loans or exchequer bills, for the ſervice of Great Britain, for the year 1801.

For granting to his majeſty certain ſums of money out of the conſolidated fund of Great Britain, and out of the conſolidated fund of Ireland; for applying certain moneys therein mentioned, for the ſervice of the year 1801; and for further appropriating the ſupplies granted in this ſeſſion of parliament.

For better payment of fines and forfeitures impoſed by juſtices out of ſeſſion in England.

For granting to his majeſty additional ſtamp duties on cards and dice; on probates of wills; on certain indentures, leaſes, bonds, or other deeds; and on ale licences.

For granting unto his majeſty certain duties on playing cards imported into Great Britain.

For providing accommodations in aſſize towns for the judges in Ireland, where ſuch accommodations are not already provided.

For repealing the duty now payable on the importation of ſtatues, wrought ſtone, and marble, and granting another duty in lieu thereof.

For the more ſpeedy and effectual recovery of debts due to his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, in right of the crown of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; and for the better adminiſtration of juſtice within the ſame.

For the better regulation and collection of certain duties of exciſe.

To alter the bounties payable on wheaten flour and Indian corn imported into Ireland; and for providing a method for recovering the forfeitures created by an act of this ſeſſion of parliament to prohibit the making

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making of malt, and diſtilling of ſpirits from corn or grain in Ireland.

To continue, until the 25th day of March, 1802, ſo much of an act, made in the preſent ſeſſion of parliament, as permits Britiſh hops to be imported into Ireland at a low rate of duty.

To empower the importers or proprietors of rum or ſpirits of the Britiſh ſugar plantations to land the ſame in Ireland, before payment of the duties of exciſe charged thereon, and to lodge the ſame in warehouſes, at their own expenſe, until the 25th day of March, 1808.

To facilitate the trade and intercourſe between Ireland and the united ſtates of America, during the continuance of the treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between his majeſty and the ſaid ſtates.

For the better regulation of his majeſty's prize courts in the Weſt Indies and America, and for giving a more ſpeedy and effectual execution to the decrees of the lords commiſſioners of appeals.

To continue ſeveral laws relating to encouraging the fiſheries carried on at Newfoundland and parts adjacent, from Great Britain, Ireland, and the Britiſh dominions in Europe, until the 1ſt day of January, 1803; to the further ſupport and encouragement of the fiſheries carried on in the Greenland ſeas and Davis's Straits, until the 25th day of December, 1802; to the making the port of Saint John's, in the iſland of Antigua, a free port, until the 10th day of July, 1805; and to the permitting the importation of goods and commodities from countries in America, belonging to any foreign European ſovereign or ſtate, in neutral ſhips, until the end of the war, and ſix months after the ſigning the definitive treaty of peace; for reviving and further continuing, until the 24th day of June, 1806, an act, made in the twenty-ninth year of his late majeſty, king George II. for granting a bounty upon certain ſpecies of Britiſh and Iriſh linens exported, and taking off the duties on importation of foreign raw linen yarns made of flax; for reviving, continuing, until the 5th day of April, 1802, and amending an act, made in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, for the more effectual encouragement of the Britiſh fiſheries; and for making perpetual ſo much of an act, made in the 27th year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, as relates to aſcertaining the ſtrength of ſpirits by Clarke's hydrometer.

For defraying the charge of the pay and clothing of the militia of Ireland, for one year, from the 25th day of March, 1801.

For granting bounties for taking and bringing fiſh to the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and other places in the united kingdom.

To repeal the tax on ſalaries, profits of employment, fees, and penſions in Ireland, of perſons not reſident in Ireland for a certain period.

For regulating, until the 1ſt day of May, 1802, the trial of controverted elections or returns of members to ſerve in the united parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, for that part of the united kingdom called Ireland; and for regulating the qualifications of members to ſerve in the ſaid united parliament.

To ſtay, until the 25th day of March, 1802, proceedings in actions, under the ſtatute of king Henry VIII. "for abridging ſpiritual

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ritual perſons from having pluralities of livings, and from taking of ferms."

To empower his majeſty to regulate the trade and commerce to and from the iſle of Malta, until the ſigning a definitive treaty of peace, and from thence until ſix weeks after the next meeting of parliament; and to declare the iſle of Malta to be part of Europe.

For indemnifying ſuch perſons as have acted ſince the 25th day of March, 1799, for the preſervation of the public peace, and ſuppreſſion of inſurrections and rebellion prevailing in ſeveral diſtricts of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland.

To authorize the judges to whom petitions for certain bills ſhall be referred, to examine witneſſes upon oath.

To ſecure certain perſons, born within the territories of France, and other perſons therein deſcribed, from impriſonment for debts contracted in parts beyond the ſeas, other than the dominions of his majeſty.

For the further encouragement of learning in the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by ſecuring the copies and copyright of printed books, to the authors of ſuch books, or their aſſigns, for the time herein mentioned.

For enabling his majeſty to grant commiſſions for executing an act, made in the thirty-ninth and fortieth years of the reign of his preſent majeſty, intituled, "An act for the better preſervation of timber in the New Foreſt, in the county of Southampton, and for aſcertaining the boundaries of the ſaid foreſt, and of the lands of the crown within the ſame.

For conſolidating in one act, certain proviſions uſually inſerted in acts of incloſure; and for facilitating the mode of proving the ſeveral facts uſually required on the paſſing of ſuch acts.

METEOROLOGICAL

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METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR 1801.

1801.	*Thermometer without.*			*Thermometer within.*			*Barometer.**			*Hygrometer.*			*Rain.*
	Greateſt Height.	Leaſt Height.	Mean Height.	Greateſt Height.	Leaſt Height.	Mean Height.	Greateſt Height.	Leaſt Height.	Mean Height.	Greateſt Height.	Leaſt Height.	Mean Height.	
	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Inches.
January . .	52	25	42,0	58	49	53,7	30,21	29,30	29,84	90	66	78,3	1,226
February. .	56	27	40,7	60	47	53,1	30,26	29,16	29,77	85	62	73,9	0,544
March . .	59	31	46,4	61	52	56,4	30,43	29,12	29,87	84	62	73,5	1,108
April . .	65	32	48,9	62	52	57,6	30,38	29,38	30,04	78	50	65,9	0,376
May	71	44	56,7	64	57	60,0	30,16	29,44	29,82	86	52	66,2	1,509
June	80	50	62,3	69	61	63,7	30,20	29,76	30,04	80	53	64,7	0,791
July	79	52	63,9	70	61	65,9	30,12	29,38	29,77	94	57	69,6	3,524
August . . .	79	54	66,1	72	65	68,2	30,24	29,57	30,06	90	55	68,7	1,569
September.	73	47	61,3	66	58	62,8	30,30	29,38	29,89	92	57	73,7	1,264
October. . .	63	34	53,2	64	56	60,6	30,34	29,01	29,83	90	63	75,1	1,474
November.	60	26	42,5	62	49	54,8	30,33	28,83	29,71	95	61	79,6	3,294
December.	50	24	38,1	55	45	50,9	30,22	28,65	29,48	94	70	81,2	2,518
Whole Year			51,8			59,0			29,84			72,5	19,197

* The quickſilver in the baſin of the barometer is 31 feet above the level of low water ſpring-tides at Somerſet-houſe.

STATE

STATE PAPERS.

His Majesty's Speech to both Houses, on opening the Imperial Parliament, 2d February, 1801.

My lords and gentlemen,

AT a crisis so important to the interests of my people, I derive great satisfaction from being enabled, for the first time, to avail myself of the advice and assistance of the parliament of my united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

This memorable æra, distinguished by the accomplishment of a measure, calculated to augment and consolidate the strength and resources of the empire, and to cement more closely the interests and affections of my subjects, will, I trust, be equally marked by that vigour, energy, and firmness, which the circumstances of our present situation peculiarly require.

The unfortunate course of events on the continent, and the consequences which must be expected to result from it, cannot fail to be matter of anxiety and concern, to all who have a just feeling for the security and independence of Europe.

Your astonishment, as well as your regret, must be excited by the conduct of those powers, whose attention, at such a period, appears to be more engaged in endeavours to weaken the naval force of the British empire, which has hitherto opposed so powerful an obstacle to the inordinate ambition of France, than in concerting the means of mutual defence against their common and increasing danger.

The representations which I directed to be made to the court of Petersburgh, in consequence of the outrages committed against the ships, property, and persons of my subjects, have been treated with the utmost disrespect: and the proceedings of which I complained have been aggravated by subsequent acts of injustice and violence. Under these circumstances, a convention has been concluded by that court, with those of Copenhagen and Stockholm; the object of which, as avowed by one of the contracting parties, is to renew their former engagements for establishing by force a new code of maritime law, inconsistent with the rights, and hostile to the interests of this country.

In this situation I could not hesitate as to the conduct which it became me to pursue. I have taken the earliest measures to repel the aggressions of this hostile confederacy, and to support those principles which are essential to the maintenance

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tenance of our naval ſtrength, and which are grounded on the ſyſtem of public law, ſo long eſtabliſhed and recogniſed in Europe. I have, at the ſame time, given ſuch aſſurances as manifeſt my diſpoſition to renew my ancient relations with thoſe powers, whenever it can be done conſiſtently with the honour of my crown, and with a juſt regard to the ſafety of my ſubjects.

You will, I am perſuaded, omit nothing on your part that can afford me the moſt vigorous and effectual ſupport, in my firm determination to maintain, to the utmoſt, againſt every attack, the naval rights and the intereſts of my empire.

Gentlemen of the houſe of commons,

I have directed the eſtimates for the ſeveral branches of the public ſervice to be laid before you. Deeply as I lament the continued neceſſity of adding to the burdens of my people, I am perſuaded you will feel with me, the importance of providing effectual means for thoſe exertions which are indiſpenſably requiſite for the honour and ſecurity of the country.

My lords and gentlemen,

I am confident that your deliberations will be uniformly directed to the great object of improving the benefits of that happy union, which, by the bleſſing of Providence, has now been effected; and of promoting to the utmoſt the proſperity of every part of my dominions.

You will, I doubt not, reſume the inquiries which were ſo diligently proſecuted in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, as to the beſt means of relieving my ſubjects from the preſſure of the preſent high price of proviſions, and of preventing, as far as it can be done by human foreſight, the recurrence of ſimilar difficulties. In theſe endeavours, and in every meaſure that can contribute to the happineſs of my people, the great end of all my wiſhes, you may be aſſured of my cordial concurrence.

You may rely on my availing myſelf of the earlieſt opportunity which ſhall afford a proſpect of terminating the preſent conteſt, on grounds conſiſtent with our ſecurity and honour, and with the maintenance of thoſe eſſential rights on which our naval ſtrength muſt always depend. It will afford me the trueſt and moſt heartfelt ſatisfaction, whenever the diſpoſition of our enemies ſhall enable me thus to reſtore to the ſubjects of the united kingdom the bleſſings of peace, and thereby confirm and augment thoſe advantages which reſult from our internal ſituation, and which, even under all the difficulties of war, have carried to ſo great an extent, the agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and revenue of this country.

Meſſage from his Majeſty to the Houſe of Commons, 16th February.

G. R.

HIS majeſty being deſirous of conferring ſome ſignal mark of his royal approbation upon ſir Sidney Smith, in conſideration of his eminent ſervices, and the valour and abilities he has diſplayed in various important operations againſt the enemy, on the coaſt of Egypt, and particularly for his gallant defence of Acre, recommends to the houſe of commons to make proviſion

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provision for securing the sum of one thousand pounds per annum, for the term of his natural life.

Message from his Majesty to the House of Commons, 14th May.

G. R.

HIS majesty, taking into his most serious consideration the imminent danger with which the kingdom of Portugal, the ancient and natural ally of his crown, is threatened by the powers now at war with his majesty, as well as the importance of the commercial relations subsisting between the two kingdoms, and relying on the known zeal and affection of his faithful commons, recommends it to them to consider of empowering his majesty to afford, by way of subsidy to the queen of Portugal, such assistance as may enable her most faithful majesty to take such measures for the defence of her dominions against her enemies, as the exigencies of affairs may appear to require.

Message from his Majesty to the House of Commons, 3d June.

G. R.

HIS majesty thinks proper to acquaint the house of commons, that he has founded an establishment for promoting military science. His majesty thinks it will add to the skill and discipline which, combined with British valour, have been so gloriously displayed in the service of the country; and, therefore, requests the house of commons will make provision, to enable him to accomplish an object of so much importance.

Message from his Majesty to the House of Lords, 8th June.

G. R.

AS the state of public business may soon enable his majesty to put an end to the present session of parliament, his majesty thinks proper to recommend to the house of commons, to make such further provisions as may be necessary to defray those expenses which have been incurred, and of which no specific estimates have been laid before parliament, and to take such other measures as the exigencies of affairs may require.

Communication read in the House of Lords, by the Lord Chancellor, to both Houses, from his Majesty, for putting a Period, by Prorogation, to the present Session of Parliament; 2d July.

My lords and gentlemen,

WE have it in command from his majesty to acquaint you, that, on account of the advanced period of the season, and the state of public business, he is induced to relieve you from a longer attendance in parliament.

His majesty highly commends the wisdom, temper, and diligence, which have marked all your proceedings; and particularly acknowledges the assiduity and zeal with which you have pursued the investigation of the important subjects brought under your consideration, in consequence of the severe pressure occasioned by the high price of corn.

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The beneficial effects of the measures you have suggested for the alleviation of this calamity, have afforded his majesty great consolation, and he has the utmost satisfaction in indulging the hope, that, under the favour of Providence, the blessings of plenty will be restored by the produce of the ensuing harvest.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

His majesty has directed us to return you his particular thanks, for the liberal provision which you have made for the various branches of the public service. While he regrets the necessity of supplies so large, it is a relief to his majesty to observe, that the resources and continued prosperity of the country have enabled you to distribute the public burdens in such a manner as to press with as little severity as possible on his faithful subjects.

My lords and gentlemen,

The brilliant and repeated successes of his majesty's arms by sea and land, important as they are in their immediate consequences, are not less satisfactory to his majesty's mind, as affording fresh and decisive proofs of that vigorous exertion, undaunted valour, and steady perseverance, which distinguish the national character; and on which the chief reliance must be placed for respect abroad, and for confidence and security at home. Events so honourable to the British name derive, at the present moment, peculiar value in his majesty's estimation, from their tendency to facilitate the attainment of the great object of his unceasing solicitude, the restoration of peace on fair and adequate terms. They furnish at the same time an additional pledge, that if the sentiments of moderation and justice, which will ever govern his majesty's conduct, should be rendered unavailing, in this instance, by unreasonable pretensions on the part of his enemies, the spirit and firmness of his people will continue to be manifested by such efforts and sacrifices as may be necessary for asserting the honour of his majesty's crown, and for maintaining the permanent interests of the empire.

Then a commission for proroguing the parliament was read. After which the lord chancellor said:

My lords and gentlemen,

By virtue of his majesty's commission under the great seal, to us and other lords directed, and now read, we do, in his majesty's name, and in obedience to his commands, prorogue this parliament to Thursday, the 6th day of August next, to be then here holden; and this parliament is accordingly prorogued to Thursday, the 6th of August next.

Speech of his Majesty, in the House of Lords, on the 29th October, 1801, on opening the second Session of the Imperial Parliament.

My lords and gentlemen,

I Have the satisfaction to acquaint you, that the important negotiations, in which I was engaged at the close of the last session of parliament, are brought to a favourable conclusion. The differences with the northern powers have been adjusted by a convention with the emperor of Russia, to which the kings of Denmark and Sweden have expressed their readiness to accede. The essential rights for which we contended are thereby secured, and provision

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provision is made that the exercise of them shall be attended with as little molestation as possible to the subjects of the contracting parties.

Preliminaries of peace have also been ratified between me and the French republic; and I trust that this important arrangement, whilst it manifests the justice and moderation of my views, will also be found conducive to the substantial interests of this country, and honourable to the British character.—Copies of these papers shall forthwith be laid before you; and I earnestly hope that the transactions to which they refer will meet with the approbation of my parliament.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

I have directed such estimates to be prepared of the various demands for the public service as appear to me to be the best adapted to the situation in which we are now placed. It is painful to me to reflect that provision cannot be made for defraying the expenses which must unavoidably be continued, for a time, in different parts of the world, and for maintaining an adequate peace establishment, without large additional supplies. You may, however, be assured, that all possible attention shall be paid to such economical arrangements as may not be inconsistent with the great object of effectually providing for the security of all my dominions.

My lords and gentlemen,

I cannot sufficiently describe the gratification and comfort I derive from the relief which the bounty of divine Providence has afforded to my people, by the abundant produce of the late harvest: in contemplating the situation of the country at this important conjuncture, it is impossible for me to refrain from expressing the deep sense I entertain of the temper and fortitude which have been manifested by all descriptions of my faithful subjects, under the various and complicated difficulties with which they have had to contend.

The distinguished valour and eminent services of my forces by sea and land, which, at no period, have been surpassed; the unprecedented exertions of the militia and fencibles, and the zeal and perseverance of the yeomanry and volunteer corps of cavalry and infantry, are entitled to my warmest acknowledgments; and I am persuaded, that you will join with me in reflecting, with peculiar satisfaction, on the naval and military operations of the last campaign; and on the successful and glorious issue of the expedition to Egypt, which has been marked throughout by achievements tending, in their consequences, and by their example, to produce lasting advantages and honour to this country.

It is my first wish, and most fervent prayer, that my people may experience the reward they have so well merited, in a full enjoyment of the blessings of peace, in a progressive increase of the national commerce, credit, and resources; and, above all, in the undisturbed possession of their religion, laws, and liberties, under the safeguard and protection of that constitution, which it has been the great object of all our efforts to preserve, and which it is our most sacred duty to transmit, unimpaired, to our descendants.

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Convention with the Court of London, ſigned at St. Peterſburgh, the 5th (17th) June, 1801.

In the Name of the Moſt Holy and Undivided Trinity.

THE mutual deſire of his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, and of his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being not only to come to an underſtanding between themſelves with reſpect to the differences which have lately interrupted the good underſtanding and friendly relations which ſubſiſted between the two ſtates; but alſo to prevent, by frank and preciſe explanations upon the navigation of their reſpective ſubjects, the renewal of ſimilar altercations and troubles which might be the conſequence of them; and the object of the ſolicitude of their ſaid majeſties being to ſettle, as ſoon as can be done, an equitable arrangement of thoſe differences, and an invariable determination of their principles upon the rights of neutrality, in their application to their reſpective monarchies, in order to unite more cloſely the ties of friendſhip and good intercourſe, of which they acknowledge the utility and the benefits, have named and choſen for their plenipotentiaries, viz. his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, the ſieur Nikita, count de Panin, his counſellor, &c. and his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyne, baron St. Helens, privy counſellor, &c. who, after having communicated their full powers, and found them in good and due form, have agreed upon the following points and articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be hereafter between his imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias and his Britannic majeſty, their ſubjects, the ſtates and countries under their domination, good and unalterable friendſhip and underſtanding; and all the political, commercial, and other relations of common utility between the reſpective ſubjects, ſhall ſubſiſt as formerly, without their being diſturbed or troubled in any manner whatever.

II. His majeſty the emperor and his Britannic majeſty declare, that they will take the moſt eſpecial care of the execution of the prohibitions againſt the trade of contraband of their ſubjects with the enemies of each of the high contracting parties.

III. His imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias and his Britannic majeſty having reſolved to place under a ſufficient ſafeguard the freedom of commerce and navigation of their ſubjects, in caſe one of them ſhall be at war, whilſt the other ſhall be neuter, have agreed:

1. That the ſhips of the neutral power ſhall navigate freely to the ports and upon the coaſts of the nations at war.

2. That the effects embarked on board neutral ſhips ſhall be free, with the exception of contraband of war, and of enemy's property; and it is agreed, not to compriſe in the number of the latter, the merchandize of the produce, growth, or manufacture, of the countries at war, which ſhould have been acquired by the ſubjects of the neutral power, and ſhould be tranſported for their account, which merchandize cannot be excepted in any caſe from the freedom granted to the flag of the ſaid power.

3. That, in order to avoid all equivocation and miſunderſtanding of what ought to be qualified as contra-

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contraband of war, his imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias and his Britannic majeſty declare, conformably to the 11th article of the treaty of commerce concluded between the two crowns on the 10th (21ſt) February, 1797, that they acknowledge as ſuch only the following objects, viz. cannons, mortars, fire-arms, piſtols, bombs, grenades, balls, bullets, firelocks, flints, matches, powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, helmets, pikes, ſwords, ſword-belts, pouches, ſaddles, and bridles, excepting, however, the quantity of the ſaid articles which may be neceſſary for the defence of the ſhip and of thoſe who compoſe the crew; and all other articles whatever, not enumerated here, ſhall not be reputed warlike and naval ammunition, nor be ſubject to confiſcation, and of courſe ſhall paſs freely, without being ſubject to the ſmalleſt difficulty, unleſs they be conſidered as enemy's property in the above ſettled ſenſe. It is alſo agreed, that that which is ſtipulated in the preſent article ſhall not be to the prejudice of the particular ſtipulations of one or the other crown with other powers, by which objects of ſimilar kind ſhould be reſerved, prohibited, or permitted.

4. That in order to determine what characterizes a blockaded port, that denomination is given only to that where there is, by the diſpoſition of the power which attacks it with ſhips ſtationary, or ſufficiently near, an evident danger in entering.

5. That the ſhips of the neutral power ſhall not be ſtopped but upon juſt cauſes and evident facts: that they be tried without delay, and that the proceeding be always uniform, prompt, and legal.

In order the better to enſure the reſpect due to theſe ſtipulations, dictated by the ſincere deſire of conciliating all intereſts, and to give a new proof of their loyalty and love of juſtice, the high contracting parties enter here into the moſt formal engagement, to renew the ſevereſt prohibitions to their captains, whether of ſhips of war or merchantmen, to take, keep, or conceal, on board their ſhips, any of the objects which, in the terms of the preſent convention, may be reputed contraband, and reſpectively to take care of the execution of the orders which they ſhall have publiſhed in their admiralties, and wherever it ſhall be neceſſary.

IV. The two high contracting parties, wiſhing to prevent all ſubject of diſſenſion in future, by limiting the right of ſearch of merchant-ſhips going under convoy, to the ſole cauſes in which the belligerent power may experience a real prejudice, by the abuſe of the neutral flag, have agreed,

1. That the right of ſearching merchant-ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of one of the contracting powers, and navigating under convoy of a ſhip of war of the ſaid power, ſhall only be exerciſed by ſhips of war of the belligerent party, and ſhall never extend to the fitters-out of privateers, or other veſſels, which do not belong to the imperial or royal fleet of their majeſties, but which their ſubjects ſhall have fitted out for war.

2. That the proprietors of all merchant-ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of one of the contracting ſovereigns, which ſhall be deſtined to ſail under convoy of a ſhip of war, ſhall be required, before they receive their ſailing orders, to pro-

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duce to the commander of the convoy their paſſports and certificates, or ſea letters, in the form annexed to the preſent treaty.

3. That when ſuch ſhip of war, and every merchant-ſhip under convoy, ſhall be met with by a ſhip or ſhips of war of the other contracting party, who ſhall then be in a ſtate of war, in order to avoid all diſorder, they ſhall keep out of cannon-ſhot, unleſs the ſituation of the ſea, or the place of meeting, render a nearer approach neceſſary; and the commander of the ſhip of the belligerent power ſhall ſend a ſloop on board the convoy, where they ſhall proceed reciprocally to the verification of the papers and certificates that are to prove, on one part, that the ſhip of war is authorized to take under its eſcort ſuch or ſuch merchant-ſhips of its nation, laden with ſuch a cargo, and for ſuch a port: on the other part, that the ſhip of war of the belligerent party belongs to the imperial or royal fleet of their majeſties.

4. This verification made, there ſhall be no pretence for any ſearch, if the papers are found in due form, and if there exiſts no good motive for ſuſpicion. In the contrary caſe, the captain of the neutral ſhip of war (being duly required thereto by the captain of the ſhip of war, or ſhips of war, of the belligerent power) is to bring to and detain his convoy during the time neceſſary for the ſearch of the ſhips which compoſe it, and he ſhall have the faculty of naming and delegating one or more officers to aſſiſt at the ſearch of the ſaid ſhips, which ſhall be done in his preſence on board each merchant-ſhip, conjointly with one or more officers ſelected by the captain of the ſhip of the belligerent party.

5. If it happen that the captain of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the power at war, having examined the papers found on board, and having interrogated the maſter and crew of the ſhip, ſhall ſee juſt and ſufficient reaſon to detain the merchant-ſhip, in order to proceed to an ulterior ſearch, he ſhall notify that intention to the captain of the convoy, who ſhall have the power to order an officer to remain on board the ſhip thus detained, and to aſſiſt at the examination of the cauſe of her detention. The merchant-ſhip ſhall be carried immediately to the neareſt and moſt convenient port belonging to the belligerent power, and the ulterior ſearch ſhall be carried on with all poſſible diligence.

V. It is alſo agreed, that if any merchant-ſhip thus convoyed ſhould be detained without juſt and ſufficient cauſe, the commander of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power, ſhall not only be bound to make to the owners of the ſhip and of the cargo a full and perfect compenſation for all the loſſes, expenſes, damages, and coſts, occaſioned by ſuch a detention, but ſhall farther be liable to an ulterior puniſhment for every act of violence or other fault which he may have committed, according as the nature of the caſe may require. On the other hand, no ſhip of war with a convoy ſhall be permitted, under any pretext whatſoever, to reſiſt by force the detention of a merchant-ſhip or ſhips by the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power; an obligation which the commander of a ſhip of war with convoy is not bound to obſerve towards privateers and their fitters-out.

VI. The high contracting powers ſhall give preciſe and efficacious orders

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ders that the ſentences upon prizes made at ſea ſhall be conformable with the rules of the moſt exact juſtice and equity; that they ſhall be given by judges above ſuſpicion, and who ſhall not be intereſted in the matter. The government of the reſpective ſtates ſhall take care that the ſaid ſentences ſhall be promptly and duly executed, according to the forms preſcribed. In caſe of the unfounded detention, or other contravention of the regulations ſtipulated by the preſent treaty, the owners of ſuch a ſhip and cargo ſhall be allowed damages proportioned to the loſs occaſioned by ſuch detention. The rules to obſerve for theſe damages, and for the caſe of unfounded detention, as alſo the principles to follow for the purpoſe of accelerating the proceſs, ſhall be the matter of additional articles, which the contracting parties agree to ſettle between them, and which ſhall have the ſame force and validity as if they were inſerted in the preſent act. For this effect, their imperial and Britannic majeſties mutually engage to put their hand to the ſalutary work, which may ſerve for the completion of theſe ſtipulations, and to communicate to each other without delay the views which may be ſuggeſted to them by their equal ſolicitude to prevent the leaſt grounds for diſpute in future.

VII. To obviate all the inconveniences which may ariſe from the bad faith of thoſe who avail themſelves of the flag of a nation without belonging to it, it is agreed to eſtabliſh for an inviolable rule, that any veſſel whatever, to be conſidered as the property of the country the flag of which it carries, muſt have on board the captain of the ſhip, and one half of the crew of the people of that country, and the papers and paſſports in due and perfect form; but every veſſel which ſhall not obſerve this rule, and which ſhall infringe the ordinances publiſhed on that head, ſhall loſe all rights to the protection of the contracting powers.

VIII. The principles and meaſures adopted by the preſent act, ſhall be alike applicable to all the maritime wars in which one of the two powers may be engaged whilſt the other remains neutral. Theſe ſtipulations ſhall in conſequence be regarded as permanent, and ſhall ſerve for a conſtant rule to the contracting powers in matters of commerce and navigation.

IX. His majeſty the king of Denmark, and his majeſty the king of Sweden, ſhall be immediately invited by his imperial majeſty, in the name of the two contracting parties, to accede to the preſent convention, and at the ſame time to renew and confirm their reſpective treaties of commerce with his Britannic majeſty; and his ſaid majeſty engages, by acts which ſhall have eſtabliſhed that agreement, to render and reſtore to each of theſe powers, all the prizes that have been taken from them, as well as the territories and countries under their domination, which have been conquered by the arms of his Britannic majeſty ſince the rupture, in the ſtate in which thoſe poſſeſſions were found, at the period at which the troops of his Britannic majeſty entered them. The orders of his ſaid majeſty for the reſtitution of thoſe prizes and conqueſts ſhall be immediately expedited after the exchange of the

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ratification of the acts by which Sweden and Denmark shall accede to the present treaty.

X. The present convention shall be ratified by the two contracting parties, and the ratifications exchanged at St. Petersburgh in the space of two months at farthest, from the day of the signature. In faith of which, the respective plenipotentiaries have caused to be made two copies perfectly similar, signed with their hands, and have sealed with their arms.

Done at St. Petersburgh the 5th (17th) June, 1801.

(L. S.) N. Count de Panin.
(L. S.) St. Helens.

First separate Article of the Convention with the Court of London, signed the 5th (17th) June, 1801.

The pure and magnanimous intentions of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, having already induced him to restore the vessels and goods of British subjects, which had been sequestered in Russia, his said majesty confirms that disposition in its whole extent; and his Britannic majesty engages also to give immediate orders for taking off all sequestration laid upon the Russian, Danish, and Swedish properties, detained in English ports, and to prove still more his sincere desire to terminate amicably the differences which have arisen between Great Britain and the northern courts; and in order that no new incident may throw obstacles in the way of this salutary work, his Britannic majesty binds himself to give orders to the commanders of his forces by land and sea, that the armistice now subsisting with the courts of Denmark and Sweden shall be prolonged for a term of three months from the date of this day; and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, guided by the same motives, undertakes, in the name of his allies, to have this armistice maintained during the said term.

Second separate Article of the Convention with the Court of London, signed at St. Petersburgh the 5th (17th) of June, 1801.

The differences and misunderstandings which subsisted between his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, and his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being thus terminated, and the precautions taken by the present convention not giving farther room to fear that they may be able to disturb in future the harmony and good understanding which the two high contracting parties have at heart to consolidate, their said majesties confirm anew, by the present convention, the treaty of commerce of the 10th (February 21, 1797), of which all the stipulations are here repeated, to be maintained in their whole extent.

Additional Articles to the Convention between England and Russia, of the 17th June, 1801.

It having been resolved, by the 5th article of the convention, concluded on the 17th June, 1801, between his imperial majesty of Russia and his British majesty, that both the high contracting powers should mutually agree upon certain separate articles for the establishing of

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of thoſe rules and principles, which are to be followed with a view to promote a ſpeedy deciſion in reſpect to prizes made in the open ſea, as well as with reſpect to the indemnification which is due to the proprietors of neutral ſhips and cargoes, in caſe of a groundleſs detention:—their majeſties have for that purpoſe named and veſted with full power; his imperial majeſty of Ruſſia, Alexander prince Kurakin, his vice-chancellor, &c. and Victor count Kotſchoubey, his actual privy counſellor, &c.; and his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyne, lord baron St. Helens, peer of the ſaid united kingdom, &c.; who, by virtue of their reſpective full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

Art. I. In caſe of a groundleſs detention, or other tranſgreſſion of rules mutually eſtabliſhed, there ſhall be paid to the owners of the ſhips ſo detained and of their cargo, for each day's delay, a recompenſe in proportion to the loſs ſuſtained, reckoning according to the freight of the ſhip, and the quality of the cargo.

II. In caſe the miniſters of the contracting parties, or other perſons accredited by them, with the belligerent powers, ſhall happen to complain of the ſentence given on ſuch prizes by the reſpective courts of admiralty, the buſineſs ſhall be immediately referred by appeal, in Ruſſia, to the directing ſenate, and in Great Britain to the king's council.

III. Both ſides ſhall carefully examine whether the regulations and proviſions in the preſent convention have been obſerved, which muſt be done in the ſpeedieſt manner. Both contracting parties engage farther to adopt the moſt effectual means to prevent every unneceſſary delay in reſpect to the ſentences to be pronounced in the reſpective tribunals, on prizes made in the open ſea.

IV. The effects detained ſhall neither be ſold nor unloaded before a final ſentence, unleſs in the caſe of a really preſſing neceſſity, ſhewn to the court of admiralty by a commiſſion appointed for that purpoſe; and it ſhall by no means be permitted to the captors to unload of their own authority, or to carry away any thing from ſhips ſo detained.

Theſe ſeparate articles, which form a part of the convention, ſigned on the 17th of June, in the names of their imperial Ruſſian and Britannic majeſties, ſhall have the ſame force and effect as if they were word for word inſerted in the ſaid convention.

Signed at Moſcow, October 20, 1801.

Prince Kurakin.
Count Kotſchoubey.
St. Helens.

Declaration explanatory of the ſecond Section of the third Article of the Convention, concluded at Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) of June, 1801, between his Majeſty and the Emperor of Ruſſia, ſigned at Moſcow the 8th (20th) October, 1801.

In order to prevent any doubt or miſunderſtanding with regard to the contents of the ſecond ſection of the third article of the convention, concluded the 5th (17th) June, 1801, between his Britannic majeſty and his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, the ſaid high contracting parties have agreed and declare, that

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that the freedom of commerce and navigation granted by the ſaid article to the ſubjects of a neutral power, does not authorize them to carry, in time of war, the produce or merchandize of the colonies of the belligerent power direct to the continental poſſeſſions, nor *vice verſa*, from the mother-country to the enemy's colonies; but that the ſaid ſubjects are however to enjoy the ſame advantages and facilities in this commerce as are enjoyed by the moſt favoured nations, and eſpecially by the united ſtates of America.

In witneſs whereof, we, plenipotentiaries of their ſaid majeſties, have ſigned the preſent declaration, and have affixed the ſeals of our arms thereto.

At Moſcow, the 8th (20th) of October, 1801.

(L. S.) St. Helens.
(L. S.) Le prince de Kurakin.
(L. S.) Le comte de Kotſchoubey.

Act of Acceſſion of his Majeſty the King of Denmark and Norway to the Convention of the 5th (17th) June, 1801, and Acceptance of his Majeſty the King of the united Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

In the Name of the Moſt Holy and Undivided Trinity.

HIS majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, having, in purſuance of their mutual deſire to terminate, in the moſt equitable manner, the differences which had ariſen between them, as well as between Great Britain and the other maritime powers of the north, reſpecting the navigation of their reſpective ſubjects, concluded a convention, ſigned by their plenipotentiaries at St. Peterſburgh, the 5th (17th) of June of the preſent year; and their common ſolicitude extending itſelf not only to prevent ſimilar altercations in future, and the troubles which might reſult therefrom, by eſtabliſhing and applying the principles and rights of neutrality in their reſpective monarchies, but alſo to render this ſyſtem common and equally advantageous to the maritime powers of the north; it was ſtipulated by the ninth article of the ſaid convention, that his Daniſh majeſty ſhould be invited by his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, in the name of the high contracting parties, to accede to the ſaid convention; and his majeſty the king of Denmark and Norway, animated with the ſame ſentiments of conciliation and peace, and deſirous of removing every thing which has interrupted, or might hereafter interrupt the good underſtanding between their Britannic and Daniſh majeſties, and to reeſtabliſh fully on its former footing the ancient harmony and ſtate of things, ſuch as they exiſted by his Daniſh majeſty's treaties and conventions with Great Britain, his ſaid majeſty has not heſitated to liſten to the invitation made to him to accede to the ſaid convention, ſigned at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) of June laſt.

To effect this ſalutary purpoſe, and to give to this act of acceſſion, and to the acceptance of his Britannic majeſty, every poſſible authenticity, and every accuſtomed ſolemnity, their ſaid majeſties have named for their plenipotentiaries, viz. his majeſty the king of the united king-

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dom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyne lord baron St. Helens, a peer of the said united kingdom, one of his said majesty's most honourable privy council, and his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his majesty the emperor of all the Russias; and his majesty the king of Denmark and Norway, the sieur Francis Xavier Joseph, count de Damneskiold Löwendal, count of the holy Roman empire, knight of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, major-general in the service of his Danish majesty, commander of his marine forces, and his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to his majesty the emperor of all the Russias; who, after having reciprocally exchanged their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have concluded and agreed, that all the articles of the convention concluded between his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, the 5th (17th) June of the present year, as well as the separate articles annexed thereto, and the additional ones concluded the 8th (20th) October, 1801, by the plenipotentiaries of their said majesties, in all the clauses, conditions, and obligations, are to be considered as having been agreed upon, done, and concluded, word for word, by their Britannic and Danish majesties themselves, in quality of principal contracting parties, save and except the differences which result from the nature of the treaties and engagements antecedently subsisting between England and Denmark, of which the continuance and renewal are secured by the aforesaid convention; and with the express stipulation on the part of the high contracting and acceding parties, that the stipulation of the second article of the additional articles, signed at Moscow the 8th (20th) October, 1801, by the plenipotentiaries of their Britannic and imperial majesties, which fixes that the adjudication of causes in litigation shall, in the last resort, be carried by appeal, in Russia, before the directing senate, and in Great Britain, before his majesty's privy council, is to be understood, as with regard to Denmark, that the said adjudications shall be there carried by appeal before the supreme tribunal of that kingdom.

In order to prevent any inaccuracy, it has been agreed that the said convention, signed the 5th (17th) June, the separate articles annexed thereto, and the additional ones concluded the 8th (20th) October, 1801, should be inserted here, word for word.

[Fiat insertio.]

In consequence of all which, his majesty the king of Denmark accedes, by virtue of the present act, to the said convention, and to the said separate and additional articles, such as they are herein before transcribed, without any exception or reserve, declaring and promising to fulfil all the clauses, conditions, and obligations thereof, as far as regards himself; and his majesty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland accepts the present accession of his Danish majesty, and in like manner promises, on his part, to fulfil all the articles, clauses, and conditions, contained in the said convention, and the separate and additional articles herein-before inserted, without any exception or reserve.

The ratifications of the present act

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act of acceſſion and acceptance ſhall be exchanged in the ſpace of two months, or ſooner if poſſible; and the ſtipulations of the ſaid convention ſhall, at the ſame time, be carried into execution as ſpeedily as poſſible, regard being had to the full and entire re-eſtabliſhment of the ſtate of things, ſuch as it was before the period of the miſunderſtandings, which are now ſo happily terminated.

In witneſs whereof, we the underſigned, by virtue of our full powers, have ſigned the preſent act, and have thereunto affixed the ſeal of our arms.

Done at Moſcow, the 11th (23d) October, 1801.

(L. S.) St. Helens.

(L. S.) F. X. Cte de Danneſkiold-Lowendal.

Act of Acceſſion of his Majeſty the King of Sweden to the Convention of the 5th (17th) June, 1801, and Acceptance of his Majeſty the King of the united Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

In the Name of the Moſt Holy and Undivided Trinity.

HIS majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, having terminated, by a convention, concluded at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) June, 1801, the differences which had ariſen between them reſpecting the rights of neutral navigation in time of war, and his majeſty the king of Sweden, equally induced by the deſire of removing and conciliating the diſſenſions which exiſted on the ſame ſubject between his Britannic majeſty and himſelf, having conſented, in conſequence of the invitation that has been made to him, to accede to the above-mentioned convention; their ſaid majeſties have choſen and named as their plenipotentiaries to this effect, viz. his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyne lord baron St. Helens, peer of the ſaid united kingdom, one of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy council, and his ambaſſador extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias; and his majeſty the king of Sweden, the ſieur baron Louis Bogiſlas Chriſtopher Court de Stedingk, one of the lords of the kingdom of Sweden, his ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias, lieutenant-general of his armies, chamberlain, knight, and commander of his orders, knight of the Ruſſian order of St. Andrew, knight grand-croſs of his order of the ſword, knight of thoſe of Ruſſia, of St. Alexander Newſky, and of St. Anne of the firſt claſs, and knight of the French order of military merit; who, after having exchanged their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have concluded and agreed upon what follows:

Art. I. His majeſty the king of Sweden accedes by the preſent tranſaction with his majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, to the convention which was concluded between his ſaid majeſty and the emperor of all the Ruſſias, the 5th (17th) June, 1801, as well as to the firſt ſeparate article annexed thereto, and to the additional ones, concluded on the 8th (20th) October, 1801, promiſing and engaging to obſerve and fulfil all

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all the ſtipulations, clauſes, and articles therein contained, in the ſame manner as if his majeſty had been a principal contracting party thereto, ſave and except the differences which reſult from the tenor of the treaties and engagements exiſting between England and Sweden, and which are to be renewed and confirmed in virtue of the aforeſaid convention.

II. His majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, acknowledges on his ſide his majeſty the king of Sweden as a contracting party in the convention concluded at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) June, 1801, and binds himſelf in the moſt formal manner to obſerve, execute, and fulfil, to their utmoſt extent, in whatever regards his ſaid majeſty, the ſtipulations, clauſes, and articles, of the ſaid convention, and of the ſaid firſt ſeparate article, and of the additional ones; ſave and except the differences which reſult from the tenor of the treaties and engagements exiſting between England and Sweden, and which are to be renewed and confirmed in virtue of the aforeſaid convention.

III. It is agreed that the adjudication, in the laſt reſort of cauſes in litigation, which, according to the ſecond article of the aforeſaid additional articles, are to be brought by appeal before his majeſty's privy council in Great Britain, and before the directing ſenate in Ruſſia, ſhall, in Sweden, be brought by appeal before the ſupreme tribunal, in Swediſh Högſta Domſtolen.

IV. In order to prevent any inaccuracy, it has been agreed that the ſaid convention, as well as the ſaid ſeparate and additional articles, ſhould be inſerted here word for word, and as follows:

[Fiat inſertio.]

The preſent act of acceſſion ſhall be ratified in good and due form, and the ratifications exchanged at London in the ſpace of two months, or ſooner if poſſible, from the day of its ſignature.

In faith of which, we the underſigned, in virtue of our full powers, have ſigned the preſent act, and have thereunto affixed the ſeal of our arms.

Done at St. Peterburgh, the 18th (30th) March, 1802.

(L. S.) St. Helens.

(L. S.) Court Stedingk.

Convention for the Evacuation of Egypt by the French and auxiliary Troops, under the Command of the General of Diviſion Belliard, concluded between Brigadier General Hope, on the Part of the Commander in Chief of the Britiſh Army in Egypt, Oſman Bey, on the Part of his Highneſs the Grand Vizier, and Iſaac Bey, on the Part of his Highneſs the Capitan Pacha; the Citizens Dongelot, General of Brigade, Morand, General of Brigade, and Tarayre, Chief of Brigade, on the Part of the General of Diviſion Belliard, commanding a Body of French and auxiliary Troops. The Commiſſioners above named having met and conferred, after the Exchange of their reſpective Powers, have agreed upon the following Articles:

ART. I. The French forces of every deſcription, and the auxiliary troops under the command of the general of diviſion Belliard, ſhall

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ſhall evacuate the city of Cairo, the citadel, the forts of Boulac, Gizeh, and all that part of Egypt which they now occupy.

II. The French and auxiliary troops ſhall retire by land to Roſetta, proceeding by the left bank of the Nile, with their arms, baggage, field-artillery, and ammunition, to be there embarked and conveyed to the French ports of the Mediterranean, with their arms, artillery, baggage, and effects, at the expenſe of the allied powers. The embarkation of the ſaid French and auxiliary troops ſhall take place as ſoon as poſſible, but at the lateſt within fifteen days from the date of the ratification of the preſent convention. It is alſo agreed that the ſaid troops ſhall be conveyed to the French ports as above mentioned, by the moſt direct and expeditious route.

III. From the date of the ſignature and the ratification of the preſent convention, hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on both ſides. The fort of Sulkoſky, and the gate of the Pyramids, of the town of Gizeh, ſhall be delivered up to the allied army. The line of advanced poſts of the armies reſpectively ſhall be fixed by commiſſioners named for this purpoſe, and the moſt poſitive orders ſhall be given that theſe ſhall not be encroached upon, in order to avoid all diſputes; and if any ſhall ariſe, they are to be determined in an amicable manner.

IV. Twelve days after the ratification of the preſent convention, the city of Cairo, the citadel, the forts, and the town of Boulac, ſhall be evacuated by the French and auxiliary troops, who will retire to Ibrahim Bey, the iſle of Rhoda, and its dependencies, the fort of Foueroy and Gizeh, from whence they ſhall depart as ſoon as poſſible, and at the lateſt in five days, to proceed to the points of embarkation. The generals commanding the Britiſh and Ottoman armies conſequently engage that means ſhall be furniſhed at their charge for conveying the French and auxiliary troops as ſoon as poſſible from Gizeh.

V. The march and encampment of the French and auxiliary troops ſhall be regulated by the generals of the reſpective armies, or by officers named by each party; but it is clearly underſtood, that, according to this article, the days of march and of encampment ſhall be fixed by the generals of the combined armies, and conſequently the ſaid French and auxiliary troops ſhall be accompanied on their march by Engliſh and Turkiſh commiſſaries, inſtructed to furniſh the neceſſary proviſions during the continuance of their route.

VI. The baggage, ammunition, and other articles tranſported by water, ſhall be eſcorted by French detachments, and by armed boats belonging to the allied powers.

VII. The French and auxiliary troops ſhall be ſubſiſted from the period of their departure from Gizeh to the time of their embarkation, conformably to the regulations of the French army; and from the day of their embarkation to that of their landing in France, agreeably to the naval regulations of England.

VIII. The military and naval commanders of the Britiſh and Turkiſh forces ſhall provide veſſels for conveying to the French ports of the Mediterranean the French and auxiliary troops, as well as all French and other perſons employed in the ſervice of the army. Every thing relative to this point, as well as in regard to ſubſiſtence, ſhall be regulated

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gulated by commiſſaries named for this purpoſe by the general of diviſion Belliard, and by naval and military commanders in chief of the allied forces, as ſoon as the preſent convention ſhall be ratified. Theſe commiſſaries ſhall proceed to Roſetta or to Aboukir, in order to make every neceſſary preparation for the embarkation.

IX. The allied powers ſhall provide four veſſels (or more if poſſible), fitted for the conveyance of horſes, water-caſks, and forage ſufficient for the voyage.

X. The French and auxiliary troops will be provided by the allied powers with a ſufficient convoy for their ſafe return to France. After the embarkation of the French troops, the allied powers pledge themſelves, that to the period of their arrival on the continent of the French republic, they ſhall not be in the leaſt moleſted; and on his part the general of diviſion Belliard, and the troops under his command, engage that no act of hoſtility ſhall be by them committed, during the ſaid period, againſt the fleet or territories of his Britannic majeſty, of the ſublime Porte, or of their allies. The veſſels employed in conveying and eſcorting the ſaid troops or other French ſubjects, ſhall not touch at any other than a French port, except in caſes of abſolute neceſſity. The commanders of the Britiſh, Ottoman, and French troops enter reciprocally into the like engagements, during the period that the French troops remain in Egypt, from the ratification of the preſent convention to the moment of their embarkation. The general of diviſion Belliard, commanding the French and auxiliary troops, on the part of his government, engages that the veſſels employed for their conveyance and protection ſhall not be detained in the French ports after the diſembarkation of the troops; and that their commanders ſhall be at liberty to purchaſe, at their own expenſe, the proviſions which may be neceſſary for enabling them to return. General Belliard alſo engages, on the part of his government, that the ſaid veſſels ſhall not be moleſted on their return to the ports of the allied powers, provided they do not attempt, or are made ſubſervient to, any military operation.

XI. All the adminiſtrations, the members of the commiſſion of arts and ſciences, and in ſhort every perſon attached to the French army, ſhall enjoy the ſame advantages as the military. All the members of the ſaid adminiſtration, and of the commiſſion of arts and ſciences, ſhall alſo carry with them not only all the papers relative to their miſſion, but alſo their private papers, as well as all other articles which have reference thereto.

XII. All inhabitants of Egypt, of whatever nation they may be, who wiſh to follow the French troops, ſhall be at liberty ſo to do; nor ſhall their families, after their departure, be moleſted, or their goods confiſcated.

XIII. No inhabitant of Egypt, of whatever religion, who may wiſh to follow the French troops, ſhall ſuffer either in perſon or property, on account of the connection he may have entered into with the French during their continuance in Egypt, provided he conforms to the laws of the country.

XIV. The ſick, who cannot bear removal, ſhall be placed in an hoſpital, and attended by French medical

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dical and other attendants, until their recovery, when they shall be sent to France on the same conditions as the troops. The commanders of the allied armies engage to provide all the articles that may appear really necessary for this hospital; the advances to be made on this account shall be repaid by the French government.

XV. At the period when the towns and forts mentioned in the present convention shall be delivered up, commissaries shall be named for receiving the ordnance, ammunition, magazines, papers, archives, plans, and other public effects, which the French shall leave in possession of the allied powers.

XVI. A vessel shall be provided as soon as possible by the naval commanders of the allied powers, in order to convey to Toulon an officer and a commissioner, charged with the conveyance of the present convention to the French government.

XVII. Every difficulty or dispute that may arise respecting the execution of the present convention, shall be determined in an amicable manner by commissioners named on each part.

XVIII. Immediately after the ratification of the present convention, all the English or Ottoman prisoners at Cairo shall be set at liberty, and the commanders in chief of the allied powers shall in like manner release the French prisoners in their respective camps.

XIX. Officers of rank from the English army, from his highness the supreme vizier, and from his highness the capitan pacha, shall be exchanged for a like number of French officers of equal rank, to serve as hostages for the execution of the present treaty. As soon as the French troops shall be landed in the ports of France, the hostages shall be reciprocally released.

XX. The present convention shall be carried and communicated by a French officer, to general Menou at Alexandria, and he shall be at liberty to accept of it for the French and auxiliary forces (both naval and military) which may be with him at the above-mentioned place, provided his acceptance of it shall be notified to the general commanding the English troops before Alexandria, within ten days from the date of the communication being made to him.

XXI. The present convention shall be ratified by the commanders in chief of the respective armies, within twenty-four hours after the signature thereof.

Signed in quadruplicate, at the place of conference between the two armies, the 27th of June, 1801, or of the siege of Saaffar 1216, or the 8th Messidor, 9th year of the French republic.

(Signed) J. Hope, brigadier-general.
Osman Bey.
Isaac Bey.
Dongelot, general de brigade.
Tarayre, chef de brigade.

Approved and ratified the present convention at Cairo, the 9th Messidor, 9th year of the French republic.

(Signed) Belliard, general de division.

Additional

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Additional Note, explanatory of the Convention of the 27th June, 1801, concluded at Cairo.

ART. I. It is underſtood, that the artillery which the corps of French and auxiliary troops, under the command of general Belliard, is to take with it in its retreat from Cairo, in order to be tranſported to France, conſiſts of two field-pieces, of from twelve to two pounders for each battalion, and one piece for each ſquadron, together with the ammunition-waggons belonging to them.

II. It is beſides underſtood, that the French troops embarked on board ſhips of war, ſhall, from the moment of their going on board, have their arms and ammunition depoſited in places appointed for that purpoſe, which ſhall be under the inſpection of the commander of the veſſel; which arms and ammunition ſhall be reſtored to them on their landing in France, agreeably to the convention; and that thoſe troops who ſhall be embarked in veſſels not armed, ſhall, while they remain on board, keep poſſeſſion of their arms and ammunition, and be under the control of their officers.

III. Women, children, aides-du-camp, and all effects belonging to general Menou, ſhall be tranſported from Cairo to Alexandria in veſſels furniſhed for that purpoſe by the allied powers.

IV. The wives of officers, ſoldiers, and other Frenchmen, belonging to the garriſon of Alexandria, and who are now in Cairo, ſhall have liberty to go to Alexandria, and for this purpoſe they ſhall be furniſhed with all the neceſſary means of being ſent thither; and in caſe of their not being received at Alexandria, they ſhall be conveyed to France with the troops under the command of general Belliard, or as ſoon as poſſible, and ſhall enjoy all the advantages of the ſaid convention.

V. Frenchwomen, as well thoſe belonging to the troops, as to Frenchmen in their employ, ſhall be embarked with their huſbands, and enjoy rations of proviſions, and other advantages ſtipulated in the convention, according to the maritime regulations of England.

VI. Baggage and effects belonging to theſe troops, as well as to individuals who are in the garriſon of Alexandria, if found in Cairo, ſhall be ſent to Roſetta, and embarked if poſſible.

VII. The director-general and accountant of the public revenues, ſhall have power to go to Alexandria, or to ſend a perſon employed by him thither, and for that purpoſe every poſſible facility ſhall be afforded him.

VIII. If among the hoſtages exchanged between the reſpective commanders, there ſhould be land officers, the generals and admirals of the three powers ſhall be at liberty to replace them by naval officers of the ſame rank, at the moment of their embarkation.

IX. The horſes and camels which the corps under the command of general Belliard ſhall have left in Egypt, ſhall, at the moment of the embarkation, be ſent back to commiſſaries appointed by the allied powers for receiving them.

X. It is underſtood that the fortifications ſhall be given up without being damaged, and the mines pointed out to officers of ſkill.

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Done on the 27th of June, 1801 (8th Meſſidor, 9), and 16 Saaffar, 1216.

(Signed) Donzelot, general of brigade.
Moraud, general of brigade.
Tareyre, chief of brigade.
John Hope, brigadier-general.
Oſman Bey, and
Iſaac Bey.

Agreed to, (Signed)
J. Hely Hutchinſon, general-in-chief.

Agreed to on the part of lord Keith,
(Signed) Ja. Stevenſon, captain in the royal navy.

Agreed to, (Signed)
Hhadjy Youzouf Zia, vizier.

Agreed to, (Signed)
Huſſein, pacha capoutan-diryâ.

The preſent additional articles of the convention were agreed to and ratified the 9th Meſſidor, year 9.

The general of diviſion,
(Signed) Belliard.

Preliminary Articles of Peace between his Britannic Majeſty and the French Republic. Signed at London (in Engliſh and French), the 1ſt of October, 1801, *the 9th Vendemiaire, Year* 10 *of the French Republic.*

HIS majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, being animated with an equal deſire of putting an end to the calamities of a deſtructive war, and of re-eſtabliſhing union and good underſtanding between the two countries, have named for this purpoſe; namely, his Britannic majeſty, the right honourable Robert Banks Jenkinſon, commonly called lord Hawkeſbury, one of his Britannic majeſty's moſt honourable privy council, and his principal ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs; and the firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, citizen Lewis William Otto, commiſſary for the exchange of French priſoners in England; who, after having duly communicated to each other their full powers, in good form, have agreed on the following preliminary articles:

Art. I. As ſoon as the preliminaries ſhall be ſigned and ratified, ſincere friendſhip ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed between his Britannic majeſty and the French republic, by ſea and by land, in all parts of the world; and in order that all hoſtilities may ceaſe immediately between the two powers, and between them and their allies reſpectively, the neceſſary inſtructions ſhall be ſent with the utmoſt diſpatch to the commanders of the ſea and land forces of the reſpective ſtates, and each of the contracting parties engages to grant paſſports, and every facility requiſite to accelerate the arrival, and enſure the execution of theſe orders.—It is farther agreed, that all conqueſts which may have been made by either of the contracting parties from the other, or from their reſpective allies, ſubſequently to the ratification of the preſent preliminaries, ſhall be conſidered as of no effect, and ſhall be faithfully comprehended in the reſtitutions to be made

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made after the ratification of the definitive treaty.

II. His Britannic majeſty ſhall reſtore to the French republic and her allies; namely, to his catholic majeſty, and to the Batavian republic, all the poſſeſſions and colonies occupied or conquered by the Engliſh forces in the courſe of the preſent war, with the exception of the iſland of Trinidad, and the Dutch poſſeſſions in the iſland of Ceylon, of which iſland and poſſeſſions his Britannic majeſty reſerves to himſelf the full and entire ſovereignty.

III. The port of the Cape of Good Hope ſhall be open to the commerce and navigation of the two contracting parties, who ſhall enjoy therein the ſame advantages.

IV. The iſland of Malta, with its dependencies, ſhall be evacuated by the troops of his Britannic majeſty, and reſtored to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem. For the purpoſe of rendering this iſland completely independent of either of the two contracting parties, it ſhall be placed under the guarantee and protection of a third power, to be agreed upon in the definitive treaty.

V. Egypt ſhall be reſtored to the ſublime Porte, whoſe territories and poſſeſſions ſhall be preſerved entire, ſuch as they exiſted previouſly to the preſent war.

VI. The territories and poſſeſſions of her moſt faithful majeſty ſhall likewiſe be preſerved entire.

VII. The French forces ſhall evacuate the kingdom of Naples and the Roman territory. The Engliſh forces ſhall in like manner evacuate Porto Ferrajo, and generally all the ports and iſlands which they may occupy in the Mediterranean, or in the Adriatic.

VIII. The republic of the Seven Iſlands ſhall be acknowledged by the French republic.

IX. The evacuations, ceſſions, and reſtitutions, ſtipulated for by the preſent preliminary articles, ſhall take place in Europe within one month; and the continent and ſeas of America and of Africa, within three months; and in the continent and ſeas of Aſia, within ſix months after the ratification of the definitive treaty.

X. The priſoners made reſpectively ſhall, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the definitive treaty, all be reſtored, and without ranſom, on paying reciprocally the debts which they may have individually contracted. Diſcuſſions having ariſen reſpecting the payment for the maintenance of the priſoners of war, the contracting powers reſerve this queſtion to be ſettled by the definitive treaty, according to the law of nations, and in conformity to eſtabliſhed uſage.

XI. In order to prevent all cauſes of complaint and diſpute which may ariſe on account of prizes which may be made at ſea after the ſignature of the preliminary articles, it is reciprocally agreed that the veſſels and effects which may be taken in the Britiſh channel and in the north ſeas, after the ſpace of twelve days, to be computed from the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent preliminary articles, ſhall be reſtored on each ſide; that the term ſhall be one month from the Britiſh channel and the north ſeas as far as the Canary iſlands inclufively, whether in the ocean, or in the Mediterranean; two months from the ſaid Canary

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iſlands as far as the equator; and, laſtly, five months in all other parts of the world, without any exception, or any more particular deſcription of time or place.

XII. All ſequeſtrations impoſed by either of the parties on the funded property, revenues, or debts, of any deſcription, belonging to either of the contracting powers, or to their ſubjects or citizens, ſhall be taken off immediately after the ſignature of the definitive treaty. The deciſion of all claims brought forward by individuals of the one country againſt individuals of the other for private rights, debts, property, or effects whatſoever, which, according to received uſages and the law of nations, ought to revive at the period of peace, ſhall be heard and decided before the competent tribunals; and in all caſes prompt and ample juſtice ſhall be adminiſtered in the countries where the claims are made. It is agreed, moreover, that this article, immediately after the ratification of the definitive treaty, ſhall apply to the allies of the contracting parties, and to the individuals of the reſpective nations, upon the condition of a juſt reciprocity.

XIII. With reſpect to the fiſheries on the coaſts of the iſland of Newfoundland, and of the iſlands adjacent, and in the gulph of Saint Lawrence, the two parties have agreed to reſtore them to the ſame footing on which they were before the preſent war, reſerving to themſelves the power of making, in the definitive treaty, ſuch arrangements as ſhall appear juſt and reciprocally uſeful, in order to place the fiſhing of the two nations on the moſt proper footing for the maintenance of peace.

XIV. In all the caſes of reſtitution agreed upon by the preſent treaty, the fortifications ſhall be delivered up in the ſtate in which they may may be at the time of the ſignature of the preſent treaty, and all the works which ſhall have been conſtructed ſince the occupation ſhall remain untouched.

It is farther agreed, that in all the caſes of ceſſion ſtipulated in the preſent treaty, there ſhall be allowed to the inhabitants of whatever condition or nation they may be, a term of three years, to be computed from the notification of the definitive treaty of peace, for the purpoſe of diſpoſing of their properties, acquired and poſſeſſed either before or during the preſent war; during which term of three years they may have the free exerciſe of their religion and the enjoyment of their property.

The ſame privilege ſhall be granted in the countries reſtored, to all thoſe who ſhall have made therein any eſtabliſhments whatſoever during the time when thoſe countries were in the poſſeſſion of Great Britain.

With reſpect to the other inhabitants of the countries reſtored or ceded, it is agreed that none of them ſhall be proſecuted, diſturbed, or moleſted in their perſons or properties under any pretext, on account of their conduct or political opinions, or of their attachment to either of the two powers, nor on any other account except that of debts contracted to individuals, or on account of acts poſterior to the definitive treaty.

XV. The preſent preliminary articles ſhall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged in London, in the ſpace of fifteen days for all delay; and immediately after their ratification,

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tification, plenipotentiaries shall be named, on each side, who shall repair to Amiens for the purpose of concluding a definitive treaty of peace, in concert with the allies of the contracting parties.

In witness whereof, we, the undersigned plenipotentiaries of his Britannic majesty, and of the first consul of the French republic, by virtue of our respective full powers, have signed the present preliminary articles, and have caused our seals to be put thereto.

Done at London, the 1st day of October, 1801, the 9th Vendemiaire, year ten of the French republic.

(L. S.) Hawkesbury.
(L. S.) Otto.

Declaration of the King of Denmark, relative to the maritime Convention.

WE, Christian VII. notify by these presents, that, having been invited to accede, as a principal contracting party, to the convention, concluded the 16th December of the last year, between his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, and his majesty the king of Sweden, and ratified by them the 20th of the same month at St. Petersburg, which convention is entirely conformable to that which has been signed the 16th of December at St. Petersburg, and which we have ratified the 16th of January of the present year: we formally assure by this declaration, that we have it equally at heart to establish the liberty of commerce of neutral navigation, according to the principles agreed upon and admitted by the same powers, in the year 1800; and that we are animated in that respect with the same sentiments as their majesties.

In consequence, as a contracting party to the said convention, we bind ourselves, for us and our successors, to every thing which has been stipulated; as also to all the articles separate and added since that convention. We expect that his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, and his majesty the king of Sweden, shall alike declare, by a formal act, that they have received the present; that they will acknowledge us as a principal contracting party. And as his majesty the king of Sweden, in compliance with a like invitation, has acceded in the same manner, and in the same sense, to the convention concluded and signed the 16th of December of the last year, between us and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, we solemnly declare, that we accept the accession of his majesty, and that we consider him as a principal contracting party.

In faith of which we have signed with our own proper hand this act of accession, and confirmed it with our seal.

Given in our residence at Copenhagen, the 27th of February, in the year of Jesus Christ 1801, and of our reign the thirty-sixth.

(Signed) Christian R.
(Countersigned) C. Bernstorf.

Note from the English Ambassador at Berlin, Lord Carysfort, to the Prussian State and Cabinet Minister, Count Von Haugwitz.

AS the undersigned ambassador extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary has been directed by

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his court to communicate to the Pruſſian miniſtry his majeſty's note, which, by command of his majeſty the king of Great Britain and Ireland, was preſented to the miniſters of Denmark and Sweden, he cannot diſcharge this commiſſion without likewiſe expreſſing his ſincere ſatisfaction in being authorized to declare how thoroughly his majeſty is convinced that Pruſſia can never have ſanctioned the meaſures which have given riſe to the above-cited note. Thoſe meaſures openly diſcloſe an intention to preſcribe rules to the Britiſh empire, on a ſubject of the greateſt importance; to force thoſe rules upon Great Britain, and for that end, before any of the powers who have concurred in it have given the ſmalleſt intimation to his majeſty, to enter into a league, the object of which is to renew pretenſions which Great Britain at every time has conſidered hoſtile to its rights and intereſts, and ſo declared whenever an opportunity preſented — pretenſions which the Ruſſian court has abandoned, not only in fact, but which, by a treaty actually in force, Ruſſia is bound to oppoſe, and the execution of which treaty his majeſty is entitled to inſiſt upon. When a ſhip of war belonging to his Daniſh majeſty reſiſted by force the execution of a right, which the king of Great Britain and Ireland, by virtue of the cleareſt and moſt expreſs ſtipulations of his treaties which the court of Denmark had demanded, his majeſty, on that occaſion, confined himſelf to the adoption of ſuch meaſures as the protection of the trade of his ſubjects required to be given againſt that meaſure of hoſtility, which this conduct on the part of an officer bearing his Daniſh majeſty's commiſſion ſeemed to ſhow. An amicable arrangement put an end to this diſpute, and the king flattered himſelf, not only that all miſunderſtanding on that ſubject was removed, but amity between the two courts was ſtrengthened anew and confirmed. In this ſituation of affairs his majeſty muſt have learned, with no leſs aſtoniſhment than concern, that the court of Copenhagen was employed in negotiations to renew the hoſtile confederacy againſt Great Britain which took place in 1780, and that alſo great preparations were going on in the ports of Denmark. Under theſe circumſtances the king muſt have been compelled to call for explanations from the court of Denmark. At this moment he received information that a confederacy was ſigned at Peterſburgh, and the anſwer of the Daniſh miniſter left no doubt reſpecting the nature and object of this convention, as he declared in the moſt expreſs manner, "That theſe negotiations had in view the renewal of thoſe relations which had been entered into between the ſame powers in the years 1780 and 1781," adding, "that his majeſty the emperor of Ruſſia had propoſed to the northern powers the renewal of their connexion in its original form." The engagements alluded to had for their object principles of maritime law which never had been recognized by the tribunals of Europe, and the contracting parties mutually engaged to maintain them by force, and to compel by force other nations to adopt them. They are ſtill more repugnant to the expreſs ſtipulations of the treaties which ſubſiſt between the courts of Stockholm and Denmark, and the

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the Britiſh empire. The convention which theſe engagements were to renew was negotiated at a time when the court of Peterſburgh had adopted hoſtile meaſures againſt the perſons and property of his majeſty's ſubjects, and when nothing but the extraordinary moderation of the king could have authorized other powers not to conſider him as at open war with that court. In ſuch a ſtate of things, nothing certainly could be more inconſiſtent with the ideas of neutrality, and nothing more diſtinctly indicate a hoſtile diſpoſition, than that thoſe engagements were not poſtponed till it was aſcertained whether Ruſſia was not to be conſidered as a belligerent power. Such forbearance was the more to be expected, and particularly from the court of Copenhagen, as, by an expreſs article of the league of 1780, the Daniſh ports and havens in Norway were placed at the diſpoſal of Ruſſia for the purpoſe of facilitating the proſecution of hoſtilities out of the Baltic. When therefore the king was informed by one of the contracting parties that the object of the negotiations which had been begun at Peterſburgh, without giving the leaſt intimation, and which at laſt, according to the information received by the king, had terminated in the concluſion of a convention, was no other than to renew the former confederacy, to preſs upon his majeſty a new code of law to which he had already refuſed his aſſent; and when moreover he had the moſt certain intelligence, and could no longer doubt, that the powers of the Baltic, engaged in this tranſaction, were purſuing warlike preparations with the utmoſt activity; when one of thoſe powers had placed itſelf in a ſtate of actual hoſtilities with his majeſty; no other alternative remained, but either to ſubmit, or to adopt meaſures which were calculated to put an effectual ſtop to the hoſtile operation of a league, which, by the declaration of the Daniſh court itſelf, was openly directed againſt his majeſty. Meanwhile his majeſty has not omitted on this occaſion to diſplay his wonted juſtice and good will. Although he felt it neceſſary, for the maintenance of his rights, to ſecure ſome pledge againſt the hoſtile attacks which were meditated againſt his rights, yet he has taken the utmoſt care to guard againſt loſs and injury to individuals. Firmly convinced that his conduct towards neutral ſtates has been conformable to the recogniſed principles of laws, whoſe baſis and ſanction is to be found not in paſſing intereſts and momentary convenience, but in the general principle of juſtice; of laws which have been received and obſerved by the admiralty courts of all the maritime powers of Europe; his majeſty does not yet forego the hope that the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen will not take upon them the reſponſibility that will fall upon the authors of the war; that particularly they will not expoſe themſelves to that reſponſibility for the introduction of innovations, the notorious injuſtice of which has induced thoſe powers, by which they were firſt broached, to oppoſe, when they found themſelves at war; innovations beſides, which are expreſsly repugnant to thoſe treaties which have been concluded with his majeſty. The ſtep on which his majeſty has reſolved, muſt have long been foreſeen. The Britiſh

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government has never concealed that it conſidered the league of 1780 as hoſtile, and had never ceaſed that attention with which it watches over the rights of the nation. It immediately reſiſted the attempt to renew the principles which at the above-mentioned period had been agitated, and the underſigned declared to count Haugwitz, at the firſt conference he had with him on his arrival at Berlin, "That his majeſty would never ſubmit to pretenſions which were irreconcilable to the true principles of public law, and which ſtrike at the foundations of the greatneſs and maritime power of his kingdoms."—Still later, in the beginning of November, the underſigned had the honour to repreſent to his excellency, as the miniſter of a power connected with his majeſty by the moſt intimate friendſhip, what diſagreeable conſequences muſt follow from the attempt of the northern powers to preſs forward thoſe pretenſions. He has never ceaſed to renew this declaration, when, by the command of his majeſty, he has been the interpreter of that ſatisfaction given to the king by the repeated aſſurances of the friendſhip of his majeſty the king of Pruſſia, and of thoſe conſtant ſentiments of perfect juſtice of which his majeſty has never for a moment entertained a doubt. His excellency count Haugwitz will likewiſe eaſily recollect the time when the underſigned, ultimately convinced of the friendly intentions of the Pruſſian government, communicated to him, by the command of his Britannic majeſty, the king's reſolution to allow of no meaſures which had for their object to introduce innovations in the maritime law now in force, but, on the contrary, to defend that ſyſtem in every event, and to maintain its entire execution, as it had ſubſiſted in all the courts of Europe, prior to the year 1780. If the court of Denmark had announced in the moſt unequivocal manner the real objects and contents of the engagements into which it had entered, the declaration of that court, that Pruſſia was one of the powers concerned in the negotiation, would have been ſufficient to ſatisfy the king, and to prove to him that it could have no hoſtile views againſt his government; and even ſtill his majeſty is convinced that he may implicitly rely on the friendſhip of his Pruſſian majeſty. It is true, that in relation to Great Britain and Ireland, there can be no ſimilarity between the northern powers and Pruſſia. Thoſe powers are connected with his majeſty by the ſtipulations of mutual treaties, which are leſs favourable to their intereſts, and which, more or leſs, modify and ſoften the rigour of the general law; whereas, between his majeſty the king of Great Britain and Pruſſia, no treaty of commerce exiſts, and all intercourſe between them is regulated by the general principles of the law of nations, and eſtabliſhed uſages. If, however, his majeſty were to conſider his own ſentiments, and the inceſſant wiſh he has ſhown to preſerve the friendſhip of a monarch with whom he is connected by ſo many ties, he could not at all anticipate the poſſibility of a difference which might not eaſily and ſpeedily be terminated by an amicable diſcuſſion. The repeated aſſurances of ſuch ſentiments on the part of his Pruſſian majeſty, which the underſigned has been empowered to tranſmit to his court, confirm this agree-

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able anticipation; and the known principles which have conſtantly directed his majeſty the king of Pruſſia, do not tend to countenance the ſuppoſition that the latter has entered into the confederacy, or can enter into the confederacy, to ſupport, by force, principles, in common with other powers, whoſe hoſtile views againſt his Britannic majeſty have been openly proved. Whatever ſentiments the Pruſſian government may entertain, in regard to the new principles themſelves, yet it is too juſt, and knows too well what ſovereigns owe to their people, and to one another, to favour, for a moment, the deſign to employ force, in order to induce his Britannic majeſty to acknowledge a code, which the latter deems inconſiſtent with the honour and ſecurity of his crown.

(Signed) Carysfort.

Berlin, Jan. 27, 1801.

Subſtance of the Terms in which Lord Grenville replied to Count Roſtopſchin, the Ruſſian Chargé d'Affaires, in anſwer to his Repreſentations reſpecting the Capture of Malta.

THAT all explanations aſked by Ruſſia were uſeleſs, as the court of London was under the neceſſity of inſiſting on the embargo and the ſequeſtration impoſed by the emperor Paul being taken off, and upon indemnity for what had paſſed; that the convention, relative to Malta, the execution of which was demanded by the court of Peterſburgh, was merely a plan ſubmitted by that court to the Britiſh adminiſtration, in anſwer to which they had ſent back their plan; but before the cabinet of London had ſent their anſwer, the court of Peterſburgh had diſmiſſed their ambaſſador, lord Whitworth; that the negotiations of the court of Peterſburgh to organize an armed neutrality by ſea, had made the greater impreſſion on the court of London, becauſe Ruſſia had propoſed to Great Britain to prevent, in conjunction with her, the contraband trade which was carried on with France, under Daniſh and Swediſh colours; that if a good underſtanding were to take place between the two courts, the firſt meaſure to be taken would be the re-eſtabliſhment of the diplomatic relations between the two countries, and the mutual interchange of new ambaſſadors, to be brought about by the mediation of a neutral court friendly to both powers.

Order of Council, laying an Embargo on Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh Ships.

At the Court at St. James's, the 14th January, 1801; preſent, the King's Moſt Excellent Majeſty, in Council.

WHEREAS his Majeſty has received advice, that a large number of veſſels, belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, have been, and are detained in the ports of Ruſſia, and that the Britiſh ſailors, navigating the ſame, have been, and now are detained, as priſoners, in different parts of Ruſſia; and alſo, that during the continuance of theſe proceedings, a confederacy of a hoſtile nature, againſt the juſt rights and intereſts of his majeſty, and his dominions, has been entered into with the court of St. Peterſburgh, by the courts of Denmark and Sweden, reſpectively; his majeſty, with the advice

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advice of his privy council, is thereupon pleaſed to order, as it is hereby ordered, that no ſhips or veſſels belonging to any of his majeſty's ſubjects be permitted to enter and clear out for any of the ports of Ruſſia, Denmark, or Sweden, until further order; and his majeſty is further pleaſed to order, that a general embargo or ſtop be made of all Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh ſhips and veſſels whatſoever, now within, or which hereafter ſhall come into any of the ports, harbours, or roads, within the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with all perſons and effects on board the ſaid ſhips and veſſels; but that the utmoſt care be taken for the preſervation of all and every part of the cargoes on board any of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, ſo that no damage or embezzlement whatever be ſuſtained:

And the right honourable the lords commiſſioners of his majeſty's treaſury, and the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, and the lord warden of the cinque ports, are to give the neceſſary directions herein as to them may reſpectively appertain.

W. Fawkener.

Note preſented, on the 15th January, 1801, by Lord Grenville, to the Daniſh and Swediſh Ambaſſadors, reſpecting the Embargo laid on Daniſh and Swediſh Veſſels.

THE underſigned, principal ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, has been commanded by his majeſty to make the following communication to count von Wedel Jarlſberg, and baron von Ehrenſward, Daniſh and Swediſh envoys at this court.

His majeſty has heard, with the ſincereſt concern, that at the moment when the court of Peterſburgh had adopted the moſt hoſtile meaſures againſt the perſons and property of his majeſty's ſubjects, the two courts of Copenhagen and Stockholm had concluded a convention with that power for the maintenance of a naval armed confederacy in the north of Europe. If the circumſtances under which the convention alluded to was negotiated and concluded, could have left any doubt in his majeſty's mind, reſpecting the objects to which it is directed, that doubt would, by the declarations of the court of Peterſburgh, and ſtill farther by the recent and official declarations of the court of Copenhagen, have been completely removed. It is ſufficiently known with what hoſtile intentions an attempt was made, in the year 1780, to introduce a new code of public law againſt Great Britain, and to ſupport, by force, a ſyſtem of innovation, prejudicial to the deareſt rights of the Britiſh empire. But his majeſty has hitherto had the ſatisfaction to ſee that thoſe arbitrary and injurious meaſures have been completely given up. At the beginning of the preſent war, the court of Peterſburgh, which had taken a moſt active part in the eſtabliſhment of the former alliance, entered into articles with his majeſty, which are not merely incompatible with the convention of 1780, but which are directly in the face of it; engagements which are ſtill in force, and the reciprocal execution of which his majeſty is entitled to demand, upon every principle of good faith, during the continuance of the war. The conduct of his majeſty, towards the other powers of the Baltic, and all the deciſions of his courts of juſtice, in regard to prizes, have been uniformly and notoriouſly founded

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founded upon thoſe principles which previouſly to the year 1780 had guided all other European courts of admiralty. Nor had the intention to renew the former confederacy been communicated to his majeſty, on the part of any of the contracting powers, till he received information of the actual ſigning of the convention, and had been appriſed by the declaration of one of the parties, that the object of it was to confirm the ſtipulations entered into in the year 1780 and 1781, in their original ſhape. No farther doubts, therefore, can remain, that the object of their confederacy, and the naval preparations, which the contracting parties purſue with vigour, is nothing leſs than to place themſelves in a ſituation to maintain by force, pretenſions which are ſo obviouſly inconſiſtent with the principles of juſtice, that thoſe powers, which, when neutral, brought them forward, were the firſt to oppoſe them when they became belligerent, and the eſtabliſhment of which, if it ſhould be effected, would be one of the principal means of overthrowing the ſtrength and ſecurity of the Britiſh empire. On the knowledge of theſe circumſtances, his majeſty the king would act contrary to the intereſt of his people, the dignity of his crown, and the honour of his flag (which, by the diſcipline, courage, and ſkill of his navy, has riſen to ſo extraordinary a pitch of greatneſs), were he to delay the adoption of the moſt effectual meaſures to repel the attack he has already experienced, and to oppoſe the hoſtile effects of the confederacy armed againſt him. His majeſty has therefore authorized the underſigned, officially to communicate to count Wedel Jarlſberg and baron von Ehrenſward, that an embargo has been laid upon all the Daniſh and Swediſh ſhips in the ports belonging to his majeſty. But in the execution of this meaſure, his majeſty will take care that no violent or ſevere proceedings ſhall be exerciſed on the part of his majeſty towards innocent individuals. His majeſty is ſtill animated by the moſt anxious deſire that the circumſtances which have rendered theſe ſteps neceſſary may ceaſe, and that he may be enabled to return to thoſe relations with the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen, which exiſted between them, till that mutual good underſtanding was interrupted by the preſent attempts to renew former pretenſions.

(Signed) Grenville.

Anſwer of the Daniſh Ambaſſador.

The underſigned, envoy extraordinary from his Daniſh majeſty, will tranſmit this day, with regret, to his court, the official communication he had the honour to receive yeſterday from lord Grenville, upon the ſubject of the embargo laid upon the Daniſh veſſels in the Britiſh ports.

While he waits until the orders of the king his maſter, relative to this offenſive meaſure, arrive, he cannot avoid proteſting againſt the validity of the motives alleged in the ſaid note, and againſt the juſtice of the conſequences which the Britiſh government has conceived it could accredit againſt the court of Copenhagen.

A difference which aroſe between the courts of Peterſburgh and London, during the negotiation, deſtined ſolely to the protection of a perfect neutrality in the North, has no relation

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lation whatever with that; and as his imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias has cauſed to be publiſhed a formal declaration on the ſubject of the motives of the meaſures adopted on his part, Denmark finds in it a complete refutation of the argument advanced by the Britiſh miniſter.

With reſpect to the principles of the northern powers reſpecting the ſacred rights of neutrality, they have not been abandoned. Ruſſia, in her belligerent quality, has only ſuſpended the application, and Denmark and Sweden have, by their convention of the 27th March, 1794 (officially communicated to all the belligerent powers), declared in the face of all Europe, that their ſyſtem of protection, in favour of innocent commerce, was invariable.

Hence it follows, that his Daniſh majeſty, only, now renews ties which have not ceaſed to exiſt. The underſigned thinks himſelf, in conſequence, authorized to proteſt, formally, againſt proceedings of ſo hoſtile a nature, which the king his maſter could not but have conſidered as an open and premeditated provocation, had not the communication been accompanied with the aſſurance that his Britannic majeſty ſtill deſires to maintain good harmony with Denmark; a deſire which his Daniſh majeſty has conſtantly profeſſed, and of which he has given the moſt unequivocal proofs.

The underſigned, who, for a number of years, has felicitated himſelf upon being the interpreter of the unalterable ſentiments of the king his maſter, is deeply hurt that falſe impreſſions have juſt menaced the good underſtanding between the two crowns. He wiſhes that he could ſtill be the inſtrument of an explanation calculated to do away injurious doubts, and to prevent incalculable conſequences to the intereſts of the reciprocal powers.

It is with theſe ſentiments, and with thoſe of perfect conſideration, that he has the honour to renew to his excellency lord Grenville the homage of his reſpect.

(Signed) Wedel Jarlſberg.

Jan. 16, 1801

The Anſwer of Baron Ehrenſwaard to the Notification of Lord Grenville, of the 15th of January, ſtating, that an Embargo had been laid on the Daniſh and Swediſh Ships in England.

The underſigned, miniſter plenipotentiary of his imperial Swediſh majeſty, received the official notification, by which his excellency lord Grenville, firſt miniſter of ſtate, ſignified to the underſigned, that his Britannic majeſty had ordered an embargo to be laid on all the Swediſh ſhips that ſhould be found in the harbours within his dominions. So unexpected an event between powers who were in relations of friendſhip towards each other, was received with aſtoniſhment by his imperial majeſty, who was not only unconſcious of having given his Britannic majeſty the leaſt cauſe of complaint, but on the contrary was entitled to have demanded indemnification for repeated aggreſſions. Actuated by this reflection, he rather expected that the notification was tranſmitted with the view to bury his grievances in oblivion, than to give occaſion for freſh ones, which renew the remembrance of the paſt.

As the Engliſh court has ſtated, as the ground of this notification, that a maritime convention was in contemplation, it would doubtleſs have

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have acted with more juſtice, had it waited for an official communication from the Swediſh court, which it moſt aſſuredly would in proper time have received, of a convention, which is conſidered in ſo odious a point of view, as to urge it to an act of violence againſt a court, whoſe connexion with England nothing elſe could have diſturbed. As the diſpute between the Ruſſian and Engliſh courts related to the iſland of Malta, and the declaration of the Daniſh court referred to the convention of 1780, the underſigned can ſee no juſt reaſon why the Swediſh court, which had given no cauſe of complaint to the Engliſh, and from which no other declaration was required than what related to the note of the 31ſt of December, which has juſt been received, ſhould be attacked in ſo hoſtile a manner, before any anſwer had been given to the inſinuations contained in that note.

The underſigned, who imparted the contents of the note of his excellency lord Grenville to his court, is obliged, in conformity to the orders of his maſter, to proteſt, as far as by the preſent act he can formally proteſt, againſt the embargo laid on the Swediſh ſhips, and all loſs or damage that may be thereby occaſioned. He demands, in the moſt forcible and expreſſive terms, that, in purſuance of the ſtipulations of the treaty of 1661, the embargo may be taken off, the continuance of which can no otherwiſe be conſidered than as a deſigned and premeditated declaration of war on the part of England, as well by the detention of the convoy, as in reſpect to the affair at Barcelona. The underſigned, whom the expreſſion of the deſire of the Britiſh court could not eſcape, obſerves, in the hoſtile determination by which it is accompanied, only to give his imperial Swediſh majeſty cauſe of complaint, as well by the detention of the convoy, as in reſpect to the affair at Barcelona. He wiſhes the Britiſh court had conformed to the truth of its aſſurances by its actions, in which caſe this court would have been actuated by correſponding ſentiments.

The underſigned has the honour, &c.

(Signed) Baron von Ehrenſward.

London, Jan. 17, 1801.

Note preſented, on the 1ſt of February, to his Excellency the State and Cabinet Miniſter Count Haugwitz.

THE underſigned, ambaſſador extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary of his Britannic majeſty, has the honour to addreſs himſelf to count Haugwitz, by command of his court, in order to communicate to him the following particulars:

The ſpirit of patience and of moderation which prevails in the note of lord Grenville to count Roſtopſhin, will not eſcape the notice of his excellency.

A ſolemn treaty between the two powers had given the reſpective ſubjects of each a complete ſecurity for the proſecution of their trade; and even, in caſe of a rupture, it had been agreed, that not only no embargo ſhould be laid, but that the ſubjects on both ſides ſhould have a whole year to carry away their effects, and to arrange their affairs in the country.

Notwithſtanding theſe ſacred ſtipulations, the ſhips of Britiſh ſubjects in the Ruſſian ports are detained,

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ed, and their property in an extraordinary manner, upon various pretexts, ſequeſtrated or ſold. Their perſons are likewiſe put under arreſt, and a number of Britiſh ſailors have been forcibly taken out of their ſhips, and been ſent under guard, and in the midſt of winter, into the interior of the country.

In conſequence of theſe new acts of violence, lord Grenville, ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, received his majeſty's order to addreſs a ſecond note to count Roſtopſhin, in which his majeſty ſtated his having appointed a commiſſary to ſuperintend the ſafety and the wants of his unfortunate ſubjects; a circumſtance which is uſual even among the powers that are actually at war. Lord Grenville, in that paper, likewiſe formally inſiſted on the execution of the treaty of 1793. But, though he made the ſtrong and juſt remonſtrances which ſuch circumſtances demanded, yet his majeſty's conſtant diſpoſition again to reſtore the former connection and good underſtanding between the two crowns has been in vain.

His Britannic majeſty anticipates the ſentiments which the king of Pruſſia will entertain, when he is informed of the unheard-of and unjuſtifiable manner in which his Britannic majeſty's remonſtrances were heard by the court of St. Peterſburgh. The note of count Roſtopſhin to lord Grenville, of the 20th of December, O. S. a copy of which the underſigned is ordered to communicate to count Haugwitz, will enable his Pruſſian majeſty to judge whether the underſigned is called upon to make any obſervations upon it.

The underſigned has received orders to make known to the court of Berlin, that this conduct, on the part of the emperor of Ruſſia, has put an end to all correſpondence between the courts of London and St. Peterſburgh; and the connection between the extraordinary violence committed upon the perſons and property of his majeſty's ſubjects, and with the concluſion of a hoſtile confederacy, which the emperor of Ruſſia has formed for the expreſs and avowed purpoſe of introducing thoſe innovations into the maritime code, which his Britannic majeſty has ever oppoſed, has at length produced a ſtate of open war between Great Britain and Ireland and Ruſſia.

It will not be uſeleſs to remark, that the emperor of Ruſſia, at the preſent criſis, cannot be conſidered as a neutral power, becauſe he was at war with Great Britain before he himſelf was at peace with France.

The underſigned ſhall have done juſtice to the charge with which he is intruſted, when he declares, in the name of the king his maſter, that his majeſty, on weighing the preſent circumſtances of Europe, is willing to forbear demanding from the court of Pruſſia that ſuccour which was ſtipulated by treaty, though he conſiders the *caſus fœderis* as completely coming within thoſe circumſtances in which they ſtand; and that his Britannic majeſty cannot doubt that he will receive from his ally all the proofs of friendſhip which the events of this new war would have required.

The underſigned has the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) Carysfort.

Berlin, Feb. 1, 1801.

Note

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Note tranſmitted, on the 12th of February, by the Pruſſian Miniſter Count Haugwitz, to Lord Carysfort, the Engliſh Ambaſſador at Berlin.

THE underſigned, ſtate and cabinet miniſter, has laid before his Pruſſian majeſty the two notes which lord Carysfort, envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary from his majeſty the king of Great Britain and Ireland, has done him the honour to tranſmit to him on the 27th of January, and 1ſt of February laſt.

The underſigned having it in commiſſion to return an explicit and circumſtantial anſwer, is under the neceſſity of informing lord Carysfort, that his majeſty cannot ſee, without the utmoſt grief and concern, the violent and haſty meaſures to which the court of London has proceeded againſt the northern naval powers. Error alone can have given occaſion to theſe meaſures, as the aſſertions in the note of the 27th ſufficiently ſhow. In that it is ſaid, that the maritime alliance "has for its object to annul the treaties formerly concluded with England, and to preſcribe laws to her, with reſpect to the principles of them; that the neutrality is only a pretext to impoſe theſe laws on her by force, and to eſtabliſh a hoſtile alliance againſt her."

Nothing, however, is farther from the above-mentioned negotiation, than the principles here ſuppoſed. It is founded in juſtice and moderation, and the communication of a copy of the convention to ſuch of the belligerent powers as had the juſtice and patience to wait for the ſame, will prove this beyond the poſſibility of a denial.

When, in the beginning of January, the miniſter of his Britannic majeſty officially propoſed to the underſigned the queſtion, "whether the northern courts had actually concluded the confederation which had been reported; and whether Pruſſia had acceded to it?"—the king conceived that the reſpect which ſovereigns owe to each other, and the liberty poſſeſſed by every independent ſtate to conſult its own intereſts, without rendering an account to any other power, authorized him to withhold any communications relative to himſelf and his allies; and contented himſelf with anſwering, that as he had ſeen, without interfering, the connections which England had entered into without conſulting him, he conſidered himſelf entitled to the ſame confidence; and that if the king of Britain thought it his duty to ſupport the rights and intereſts of his kingdom, his Pruſſian majeſty conſidered it as not leſs his duty to employ every means in the defence of the rights and intereſts of his ſubjects.

This anſwer might have ſufficed a few weeks ſince; but, in the ſituation in which affairs now are, the king thinks himſelf called upon to make an explicit declaration to the court of London, relative to the ſpirit of the treaty, which has probably been attacked becauſe it was not known, and which is far from having the offenſive views of which the contracting powers have been arbitrarily accuſed. They have expreſsly agreed, that their meaſures ſhall be neither hoſtile nor tend to the detriment of any country, but only have for their object the ſecurity of the trade and navigation of their ſubjects. They have been attentive to adapt their new connexions

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nexions to preſent circumſtances. The ſtrict juſtice of his majeſty the emperor of Ruſſia has, even in the detail, propoſed modifications, which alone might be ſufficient to indicate the ſpirit of the whole. It has ſince been determined, that the treaty ſhall not be prejudicial to thoſe which had before been concluded with any of the belligerent powers. It was alſo reſolved, that this determination ſhould be candidly communicated to thoſe powers, to prove the purity of the motives and views of the contracting parties. But England would not allow time for this; had ſhe waited this confidential communication, ſhe might have avoided thoſe intemperate meaſures which threaten to ſpread the flames of war ſtill wider.

Beſides, it only depended on England, previouſly to draw ſatisfactory information from the correſpondence with Denmark, if, inſtead of taking hold of two iſolated paſſages, which lord Carysfort, in his firſt note, extracted from count Bernſtorff's note of the 31ſt of December, the court of London had liſtened to the ſolemn declaration which it contained: "That it could never have been ſuppoſed for a moment that Denmark had formed projects againſt England, or plans that could not ſubſiſt together with the maintenance of harmony between the two crowns, and that the court of Copenhagen congratulated itſelf on finding an opportunity for contradicting, in the moſt poſitive manner, ſuch unfounded reports." This plain and preciſe declaration agrees with the language which the underſigned had uſed more than once to lord Carysfort, when ſpeaking on that ſubject; and it can ſcarcely be conceived how the Engliſh court, after that declaration had been received, could conclude, from the note of the miniſter of Denmark, "That the engagements of the contracting powers had for their object the introduction of principles of naval rights, which had never been acknowledged by the tribunals of Europe, and which were of a hoſtile tendency againſt England." The concluſion is totally falſe, and is not authorized even more by the contents of the anſwer of the Daniſh court, than the other unmerited reproach made to it, "of having renewed an alliance of a hoſtile tendency againſt England, and of being actively employed in armaments with that view." Never were meaſures more evidently defenſive, than the meaſures of the court of Copenhagen, and their ſpirit will be miſconceived ſtill leſs, when it is conſidered what menacing demonſtration that court had experienced from the Britiſh government, on occaſion of the affair with the Freya frigate, before the above meaſures were reſorted to. England's arbitrary conduct on this occaſion is naturally explained by the pretenſions which it had made for ſome time paſt, and which it has repeatedly renewed in the notes of lord Carysfort, at the expenſe of every commercial and naval power. The Britiſh government has, in the preſent more than in any former war, uſurped the ſovereignty of the ſeas; and by arbitrarily framing a naval code, which it would be difficult to unite with the true principles of the law of nations, it exerciſes, over the other friendly and neutral powers, an uſurped juriſdiction, the legality of which it maintains, and which it conſiders as an impreſcriptible right, ſanctioned by all the tribunals of

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of Europe. The ſovereigns have never conceded to England the privilege of calling their ſubjects before its tribunals, and of ſubjecting them to its laws, but in caſes where the abuſe of power has got the better of equity, and which, alas! are but too frequent. The neutral powers have always had the precaution of addreſſing to it the moſt energetic reclamations and proteſts, but experience has ever proved their remonſtrances fruitleſs; and it is not ſurpriſing, that, after ſo many repeated acts of oppreſſion, they have reſolved to find a remedy againſt it, and for that purpoſe to eſtabliſh a well-arranged convention, which fixes their rights, and which places them on a proper level even with the powers at war.

The naval alliance, in the manner that it has juſt been conſolidated, was intended to lead to this ſalutary end, and the king heſitates not to declare to his Britannic majeſty, that he has again found in it his own principles, that he is fully convinced of its neceſſity and utility, and that he has formally acceded to the convention, which has been concluded, on the 16th of December, laſt year, between the courts of Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden. His majeſty is, therefore, among the number of the contracting parties, and has bound himſelf, in that quality, not only to take a direct ſhare in all the events which intereſt the cauſe of the neutral powers, but alſo, in virtue of his engagements, to maintain that connexion by ſuch powerful meaſures as the impulſe of circumſtances may require. The note of lord Carysfort mentions a ſubject, to which his majeſty believes himſelf neither obliged to anſwer, nor even to have a right of entertaining an opinion with reſpect to it. There exiſt diſcuſſions between the courts of Peterſburgh and London, which have by no means any thing to do with the buſineſs which the latter has interwoven with it. But in the ſame meaſure in which the conduct of Pruſſia has hitherto been directed by the moſt blameleſs impartiality, the king's conduct will henceforth be directed by his regard for engagements, which in themſelves are a proof of it. To ſtipulations which contain nothing hoſtile, and which the ſafety of his ſubjects required, he owes all the means which Providence has laid in his power. Unpleaſant as the extremes may be to which England has proceeded, yet his majeſty doubts not the poſſibility of a ſpeedy return to conciliating and peaceable diſpoſitions, and he relies on the ſentiments of equity which, on former occaſions, he has had the advantage of meeting with in his Britannic majeſty.

It is only by revoking, and by entirely taking off the embargo, that affairs can be brought to their former ſituation; and it is for England to judge whether it ought to come to that reſolution, in order to offer means to the neutral powers for proceeding to thoſe communications which they intended to make.

But while thoſe meaſures exiſt, which have been reſorted to from hatred againſt a common principle, and againſt an alliance which can no longer be ſhaken, the hoſtile reſolution, which muſt be the conſequence, will be the neceſſary reſult of the treaty; and the underſigned is ordered to declare to the miniſter of his Britannic majeſty, that the king, while he expreſſes his concern at events of which he has not been the cauſe, will ſacredly fulfil the engagements

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gagements prescribed to him by treaties. The undersigned, thus executing his orders, has the honour of assuring lord Carysfort of his high esteem.

(Signed) Haugwitz.

12th February, 1801.

Note from the Danish to the British Minister.

London, February 23, 1801.

THE undersigned, having informed the king his master of the official communication of lord Grenville, dated the 15th January last, has received orders to declare, that his majesty is deeply affected at seeing the good understanding which has hitherto subsisted between Denmark and Britain, suddenly interrupted by the adoption of a measure as arbitrary as injurious on the part of Great Britain; and that he is not less afflicted and alarmed at seeing that measure justified by assertions and suppositions as unjust as ill founded. He remarks, with surprise, that, by confounding the cause of the measures, taken in Russia, against the interests of Great Britain, with the object of the convention relative to neutral navigation, the British government evidently mixes two affairs which have not the least connexion with each other. It is a subject of perfect notoriety, that the incident of the occupation of Malta by the troops of his Britannic Majesty, has alone been the occasion of the embargo on the British ships in the ports of Russia, and that the ministers of the neutral courts at Petersburgh acted according to their full powers and instructions anterior to that event. The dispute relating to it is absolutely foreign to the court of Copenhagen. It knows neither its origin nor foundation, or at least but very imperfectly, and its engagements with Petersburgh have no relation whatever to it. The nature of these engagements has been solemnly declared to be only defensive; and it is inconceivable how general principles, conformable to every positive obligation, and modified according to the stipulations of treaties, could be justly considered as attacks on the rights or dignity of any state whatever. While the powers who profess them require only their acknowledgment, the conflict of principles reciprocally maintained, cannot be provoked but by those means which, operating as a denial of facts, place them in direct and inevitable opposition. The undersigned, by order of the king his master, calls the serious attention of the British government to these reflections, and to these just and incontrovertible truths; they are analogous to the loyal sentiments of a sovereign, the ancient and faithful ally of Great Britain, who is not only incapable of offering, on his part, any injuries, real or voluntary, but who has well-founded titles to a return of forbearance and justice. The prompt cessation of proceedings hostile to the interests of Denmark, is a circumstance to which his majesty still looks forward with the confidence he has ever wished to entertain with regard to his Britannic majesty; and it is in his name, and conformably to the instructions expressed on his part, that the undersigned insists on the embargo placed on the Danish vessels in the ports of Great Britain being immediately taken off. By a constant series of moderation on the part of the king, the measures to which the outrageous

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geous proceedings of the Britiſh government authorized him to have had recourſe, have been ſuſpended, his majeſty deeming it an act of glory to give, by this means, a deciſive proof of the falſehood of the ſuſpicions advanced againſt him, and of the doubts thrown on his intentions. But if, contrary to all expectation, the Britiſh government perſiſts in its violent reſolutions, he will ſee himſelf, with regret, reduced to the urgent neceſſity of exerting thoſe means which his dignity and the intereſts of his ſubjects will imperiouſly preſcribe.

(Signed) Wedel Jarlſberg.

Anſwer.

Downing ſtreet, Feb. 25, 1801.

Lord Hawkeſbury preſents his compliments to count Wedel Jarlſberg, and has the honour to inform him, that he ſhall loſe no time in communicating to the Daniſh government his majeſty's ſentiments on the contents of count Wedel Jarlſberg's note of the 23d inſtant. Lord Hawkeſbury requeſts that count Wedel Jarlſberg will accept the aſſurances of his high conſideration.

Note from the Daniſh to the Britiſh Miniſter.

London, March 4, 1801.

The underſigned has conſtantly repoſed an unlimited confidence in the ſentiments and moderation of his Britannic majeſty. He has conſequently only endeavoured, in the preliminary note of lord Hawkeſbury, dated the 25th of laſt month, in anſwer to his official note of the 23d, to diſcover the expreſſion of an aſſurance of theſe ſentiments which ſhould be tranſmitted to Copenhagen; and he is perſuaded that the effect of them on the part of his Britannic majeſty will be manifeſted, by calling, in the moſt efficacious and ſatisfactory manner, the attention of the government to the repreſentations of his Daniſh majeſty, tranſmitted through the organs and offices of the underſigned. But as the adoption of conciliatory meaſures is conſtantly found ſuſpended, and as, on the contrary, thoſe of violence and injuſtice are daily accumulating, the underſigned cannot acquieſce, in ſilence, in the continuation of this ſtate of things, which only tends to bar the way to amicable explanations, and to compromiſe the deareſt intereſts of each nation. He haſtens, in conſequence, to renew with earneſtneſs the demand made in the name of his court, that the embargo placed on the Daniſh veſſels ſhould be immediately taken off. And, in expectation of a ſatisfactory anſwer, he has the honour to aſſure his excellency lord Hawkeſbury of his reſpectful conſideration.

(Signed) Wedel Jarlſberg.

Anſwer of the Britiſh Miniſter.

Downing-ſtreet, March 6, 1801.

The underſigned, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, has the honour to acknowledge the receipt of the note of count Wedel Jarlſberg, his Daniſh majeſty's envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary, of the 4th inſtant, and to inform him that he has tranſmitted to his majeſty's chargé d'affairs at Copenhagen, an anſwer to his former note of the 23d of February, which will be delivered to the Daniſh government, and

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which will fully explain his majeſty's ſentiments on the differences ſubſiſting between the two countries. The underſigned requeſts count Wedel Jarlſberg to accept the aſſurance of his high conſideration.

(Signed) Hawkeſbury.

Count Wedel Jarlſberg, &c.

Note tranſmitted, on 4th March, by Baron Von Ehrenſward, the Imperial Swediſh Miniſter Plenipotentiary at London, to Lord Hawkeſbury, the Engliſh Secretary of State.

THE underſigned, miniſter plenipotentiary of his Swediſh majeſty, has the honour to tranſmit to his excellency lord Hawkeſbury, firſt ſecretary of ſtate of his Britannic majeſty, a printed copy of the naval convention concluded on the 10th December, 1800, between his Swediſh majeſty and his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, as well as a printed copy of the naval regulations which the king has recently ordered to be drawn up.

The underſigned, who, at the command of his court, has the honour to make this communication to the miniſter of his Britannic majeſty, has it likewiſe in commiſſion expreſsly to declare, that their majeſties, by the ſaid naval convention, have reciprocally determined and ſettled thoſe rights which, as neutral powers, they believe themſelves entitled to, and by the naval regulations have aſcertained thoſe duties for the performance and obſervance of which, on the part of their ſubjects, they, as neutral powers, make themſelves anſwerable. The object of their majeſties is to confirm and ſtrengthen their rights of neutrality, and to promote the repoſe of their reſpective ſtates, by the naval convention they have entered into: and nothing is further from their intention than by ſuch a ſtep to provoke hoſtilities. The reſpect which is due to the rights of nations and to treaties, the conſcioufneſs that their own intereſts are inſeparably united with the intereſts and the love of juſtice and peace, are the only motives by which their majeſties have been actuated: they have, therefore, learnt, with the greateſt aſtoniſhment, that the firſt news of the concluſion of this convention in England, has been the occaſion of ſo violent a meaſure as that of laying an embargo on the Swediſh ſhips.

So far from deſiring to introduce any innovations with reſpect to the maritime ſtate of Europe, by the aſſertion of their rights of neutrality, their majeſties are ſenſible that it gives no power whatever where thoſe rights were not acknowledged by former treaties. England has ſeen thoſe treaties; England has ſeen thoſe treaties executed: they were officially communicated to her, and ſhe did not proteſt againſt them. In like manner it was, with regard to the convention of 1780 and 1781; and the miniſtry, who now proceed with ſo much violence, know that the partial renewal of that convention between Sweden and Denmark in 1794, and the armament that followed, operated, during a period of three years, without ever being conſidered as grounds for hoſtilities; yet a ſimilar convention is now deemed an hoſtile confederacy againſt England. A line of conduct ſo contradictory, proceeds not from the circumſtance of the principles

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principles and claims of neutral rights having been now enforced; but it ſeems to have its foundation in that maritime ſyſtem which England has eſtabliſhed in the courſe of the preſent war. It appears alſo, that that government, which Europe, from its pacific ſentiments, has ſo often endeavoured to convince of the injuſtice of its pretenſions, has now determined to commence a war for the ſubjection of the ſea, after it has rendered itſelf ſo renowned in the war undertaken for the freedom of Europe.

If the Britiſh miniſter will refer to the conduct of England againſt Sweden, and the neutral powers in general, during this war, he will find the real cauſe why his Swediſh majeſty has been induced to believe that the formal alliance of ſeveral powers, acting upon the ſame principles, would more effectually tend to convince the court of London of the validity of thoſe principles than by any one power renewing thoſe reclamations which have hitherto been made in vain; at the ſame time his majeſty never ſuppoſed that ſuch an alliance would be conſidered as an act of hoſtility. The Britiſh miniſter complains that the court of London was not before inſtructed of the intention of the reſpective courts to renew the convention of 1780; but in the ſame note he ſtates, that England had entered into engagements this war with its allies reſpecting neutrals; thus the avowal of the Britiſh miniſter is an anſwer to his own charge.

If his majeſty was not fully convinced of the innocence of his intentions, and if he was deſirous of deviating from that line of moderation he has ever obſerved, he might make an invidious and cenſurable enumeration of the conduct of England; of the unpuniſhed offences of the commanders of Engliſh ſhips of war, even in Swediſh harbours; of the inquiſitorial examinations to which the captains and crews of the ſhips detained, as well in the Weſt Indies as in England, have been ſubject; of the detention of the convoy in 1798; of the deceitful chicanery with which the proceedings of the courts of admiralty were accompanied; of the abſolute denial of juſtice in many inſtances; and laſtly, by the inſult offered to the Swediſh flag at Barcelona. His Swediſh majeſty muſt, doubtleſs, ſtate among the offences of which he has cauſe to complain, that after one of his miniſters had been ſent to the Britiſh court, its aggreſſions, inſtead of being admitted and remedied, were juſtified. But he has ſought no revenge; his majeſty wiſhes only to procure that ſecurity to his flag to which it is entitled. In conſequence of this ſentiment, the underſigned is empowered to declare, that the Britiſh court ſhall acknowledge the rights of Sweden; that it ſhall do juſtice with regard to the convoys detained in 1798, as well as reſpecting the violence offered to the Swediſh flag at Barcelona; and above all, that it ſhall take off the embargo which has been ſo unjuſtly laid on the Swediſh ſhips. His majeſty will, with the greateſt pleaſure, ſee his ports again opened to the trade of England, and the ancient good underſtanding between the two courts renewed. His majeſty, impreſſed with that dignity due to his empire, has, in conſequence of the embargo laid upon the Swediſh ſhips, placed a ſimilar embargo on all Engliſh veſſels in the harbours of Sweden.

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As the pacific tendency of the preſent convention has been proved to a demonſtration, his majeſty therefore hopes that no conſideration, reſpecting any accidental occurrence which may have taken place between the ally of his majeſty, the emperor of Ruſſia and the court of London, will be introduced. The act of the convention itſelf proves, that its baſes are the rights of neutrality, and that it is in its nature unconnected with every other ſubject of diſpute.

While the underſigned miniſter plenipotentiary of his Swediſh majeſty recommends the contents of this preſent note to the earneſt conſideration of the miniſter of his Britannic majeſty, he has the honour to entreat that his excellency lord Hawkeſbury will tranſmit him an anſwer, which he hopes will ſpeak the ſentiments of the king his maſter.

His majeſty has commanded the underſigned to preſent this to his excellency. Should the conciliatory views with which it was dictated prove fruitleſs, it is his majeſty's opinion, that the preſence of the underſigned at the court of London will no longer be of any advantage.

The underſigned has the honour to aſſure his excellency lord Hawkeſbury of his higheſt eſteem,

(Signed)

The Baron Von Ehrenſward.

London, March 4, 1801.

Copy of Lord Hawkeſbury's Reply to the Note of the Swediſh Ambaſſador.

The underſigned, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, has the honour to acknowledge the receipt of the note of baron Ehrenſward, his Swediſh majeſty's miniſter plenipotentiary, of the date of the 4th inſtant; his majeſty has already repeatedly communicated his fixed unalterable determination, to maintain thoſe eſtabliſhed principles of maritime law, which have been found, by the experience of ages, beſt calculated to afford equal ſecurity to the juſt rights and intereſts as well of neutral as of belligerent powers.

The explanations attempted to be given to the preſent convention, have in no degree weakened the impreſſion which the firſt peruſal of it produced, that the views and motives of the contracting powers were hoſtile to his majeſty's dominions; and this impreſſion is moſt fully confirmed by the conſideration, that the northern courts have recurred to the principles of the convention of 1780, at a moment when the circumſtances of the war, and the relative ſtate of the navies of the belligerent powers, convert that which was pretended to be a meaſure of common equity to all countries, into an inſtrument of excluſive injury to Great Britain.

Under theſe circumſtances, the embargo on Swediſh veſſels can be conſidered in no other view than as an act of juſt and neceſſary precaution, which will not be revoked, ſo long as the court of Stockholm continues to form a part of a confederacy, which has for its object to impoſe by force on his majeſty a new ſyſtem of maritime law, inconſiſtent with the dignity and independence of his crown, and the rights and intereſts of his people.

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The underſigned requeſts baron Ehrenſward will accept the aſſurances of his high conſideration.

(Signed) Hawkeſbury.

Downing-ſtreet, March 7, 1801.

Proclamation publiſhed at Riga, 12th February, 1801.

HIS excellency the civil governor and counſellor of ſtate, chevalier Von Richter, has received the following communication from the commercial college of the empire: "That his imperial majeſty, being convinced, by experience, that the productions and merchandize of his empire were exported by Pruſſia into England, his ſaid majeſty has thought proper to order, that the tranſportation of theſe productions and merchandizes through Pruſſia, whether by land or ſea, ſhall be ſeverely prohibited; and that, in order to accompliſh this ſovereign order, the moſt ſevere inſpection ſhall take place, in conformity with the ukaſe of the 15th of December, 1800. The commercial college has, in conſequence, required all civil governors, 1ſt, To communicate, through the medium of the magiſtrates, this order to the body of the merchants. 2dly, To order the magiſtrates to inſtruct their brokers to inſert, as a ſtipulation in their contract, whether made with foreign or Ruſſian merchants, that the articles bought or ſold ſhall not, under any pretence, be ſent into Pruſſia by any channel. The two parties ſhall bind themſelves to this. The magiſtrates are alſo bound to ſuffer none of the merchandizes to paſs thither on any pretence; and if any one ſhall refuſe to obey this order, they are to ſeize the articles, and to ſend advice thereof forthwith."

In conſequence, this order, after having been tranſmitted by his excellency the civil governor in council, in order to its being correctly executed, is, by theſe preſents, communicated to the knowledge of all the merchants in this city.

Dated Riga, Feb. 12, 1801.

Proclamation of the Emperor Alexander, on his Acceſſion to the Throne of Ruſſia.

WE, by the grace of God, Alexander the firſt, emperor and autocrat of all the Ruſſias, &c. declare to all our faithful ſubjects,

It has pleaſed the decrees of the Almighty to ſhorten the life of our beloved parent ſovereign emperor Paul Petrovitz, who died ſuddenly by an apoplectic ſtroke, at night between the 11th and 12th days of this month. We, on receiving the imperial hereditary throne of all the Ruſſias, do receive alſo at the ſame time the obligation to govern the people committed unto us by the Almighty, according to the laws and the heart of her who reſts in God, our moſt auguſt grandmother, ſovereign empreſs Catharine the Great, whoſe memory will be dear for ever to us, and the whole country. Following the ſteps of her wiſe intentions, we hope to arrive at the object of carrying Ruſſia to the ſummit of glory, and to procure an uninterrupted happineſs to all our faithful ſubjects, whom we do hereby invite to ſeal their fidelity to us by oath, before the face of all-ſeeing God, whoſe aſſiſtance we implore to

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grant us power to support the weight now resting upon us.

Given at St. Petersburgh, the 12th March, O. S. 1801.

Alexander.

Russian Imperial Ukase relative to the Order of Malta.

WE Alexander the first, by the grace of God, emperor and autocrat of all the Russias,

Inasmuch as we are desirous of affording a proof of our affection, and of our particular regard towards the sovereign order of St. John of Jerusalem, we therefore declare, that we take it under our imperial protection, and that we will employ our utmost means to reinstate it in all its rights, honours, privileges, and immunities.

To this end, we command our field-marshal Bailli, count Nicolas Soltikoff, to exercise the functions and authority of lieutenant, or vicar, of the grand master of the order, and to convoke an assembly of the great council, and to make known to the same, that it is our intention that this our imperial residence shall be considered as the capital of the sovereign order of St. John of Jerusalem, till circumstances shall admit of its having a grand master appointed according to its ancient forms and statutes.

In expectation of that epoch, we command, in our character of protector, that the same council shall maintain the government of the order; make known this our determination to all nations and prioriates; and invite them, for their own advantage, to submit to the decrees of the council.

We confirm, by the present declaration, our two Russian and catholic grand prioriates, constituted within our empire, in the enjoyment of all the properties, privileges, and administrations, conferred upon them; and we ordain, that they, in our name, as protector, shall act in obedience to the directions of our field marshal-general Bailli, count Nicolas Soltikoff, vicar or substitute of the office of grand master.

As soon as an agreement shall have been concluded with other courts for appointing a proper place, and the necessary means, a general chapter of the sovereign order of St. John of Jerusalem shall be convened; and it shall be one of the first endeavours of our proclamation, that such chapter shall proceed to the election of a grand master, who is worthy to preside, and capable of restoring to the order its ancient constitution.

Given in our imperial residence at St. Petersburgh, the 16th March (O.S.) of the year 1801, and the 1st of our reign.

(Signed) Alexander.
(Countersigned) Count Pahlen,
(Magnus Cancellarius).

Russian Ukases issued by the Emperor Alexander, March 28, 1801.

1. ALL prisoners of state are set at liberty.

2. All the late laws relative to contraband are abolished.

3. The tariff of tolls and customs of 1782 is re-introduced.

4. The English seamen are released from confinement.

5. All societies and clubs are permitted.

6. The order of Malta is to be nearly suppressed.

7. The order of St. Wladimer is restored.

8. Every

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8. Every body may dreſs as he pleaſes, provided he does not violate common decorum.

9. The importation of books and literary productions of every ſort is again permitted.

10. The regiments are to bear their old names, and the former regiments of guards are to be reorganized.

11. Every perſon, whether native, foreigner, or exile, ſhall freely enter or quit the Ruſſian dominions, without any moleſtation or difficulty on the frontiers.

12. Alexander, by the grace of God, &c. Whereas our manufacturers have not yet gained the neceſſary perfection, nor are ſufficient to ſupply the exigence of our empire, we do hereby command, that the prohibition againſt the importation of china, earthen and glaſs wares, ſteel tools and inſtruments, hardwares, ſilks, cottons, and linens, be from this moment ſuppreſſed, and that for the preſent year the tariff of 1797 be in force.

St. Petersburgh, March 28th, 1801.

Proclamation publiſhed by the Senate of Hamburgh, the 29th March, 1801.

AS circumſtances of a political nature have created the neceſſity for the imperial Daniſh troops to remain in the neighbourhood of this city, and as nothing is to be apprehended on that account, either with reſpect to the freedom and independence of the ſtate, or the property and ſafety of the inhabitants; therefore the moſt illuſtrious ſenate exhort all citizens and inhabitants to confide in their preſent interceſſions upon the occaſion; and that, with the aſſiſtance of the college of citizens, they will do their utmoſt for the advantage and ſafety of the ſtate. And the moſt illuſtrious ſenate truſt that every one will demean himſelf peaceably and obediently, and eſpecially with decency and propriety, towards the foreign military; by which alone the general ſafety can be inſured, and thoſe inconveniences avoided, to which any inconſiderate and oppoſite conduct would inevitably ſubject the city.

Given at our ſenate-houſe, the 29th March, 1801.

Manifeſto of his Highneſs Field-Marſhall Prince Charles, Landgrave of Heſſe.

By the expreſs command of his majeſty the king of Denmark and Norway, it is hereby declared:

The attacks made by the Engliſh government, in oppoſition to all the principles of the laws of nations, againſt the navigation and trade of thoſe powers that have confederated together for the purpoſe of ſecuring and maintaining the rights of neutral flags; and the arbitrary and powerful meaſures adopted by that government, notwithſtanding the moſt preſſing and continued remonſtrances; have impoſed on theſe powers the diſagreeable neceſſity of taking every previous ſtep that may ſerve to bring the ſaid government to a more juſt way of thinking.

As the excluſion of the Engliſh navigation and trade from the Elbe, muſt be an effectual means of promoting this object; and as the poſſeſſion, for a time, of the imperial city of Hamburgh has been conſidered as unavoidably neceſſary for that purpoſe;

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purpose; his Danish majesty, unwilling as he is to adopt a measure of this kind, has been obliged to give way to a crowd of imperious circumstances; and consequently has charged me to carry the measure into execution with the troops under my command.

Conformably to the positive orders enjoined me, I will most vigilantly take care, that the strictest discipline shall be observed by the troops that enter the city, while they remain there; and that the tranquillity, the property, and municipal rights of the inhabitants shall not only be undisturbed and unmolested, but that the same shall be most carefully preserved and guarded for them. I expect, therefore, that all persons shall conduct themselves peaceably and friendly towards the royal troops commanded by me; and that nobody shall find fault with that necessary severity which must be put in force in case of a contrary behaviour.

Charles, prince of Hesse.

Pinneberg, March 28, 1801.

Ordinance for laying an Embargo on English Ships and Goods, published by the Authority of the King of Denmark.

WE Christian VII. &c. declare as follows: Whereas all amicable means for taking off the embargo laid on the ships and property of our subjects in the English ports, have proved fruitless; we have been obliged to give directions that all ships and goods belonging to the subjects of the British government, and which are now in our ports, shall be detained and laid under an embargo. All magistrates of towns, and officers of our customs, are directed to assist in carrying this measure into effect.

The same persons are to prepare every thing that is necessary for the preservation of the goods and ships so detained; and every care must be taken of the crews of the ships.

Given under our hand and seal at Copenhagen, on the 29th of March, 1801.

Christian R.

[A similar edict was issued by the king of Sweden.]

Declaration of the King of Prussia to the Royal and Electoral College at Hanover, and to the Commanders of the Hanoverian Troops.

IN consequence of the oppressions which neutral navigation and commerce have sustained on the part of the English navy, since the commencement of this war, the different powers therein interested could no longer abstain, after so many ineffectual complaints, from protecting their violated rights with a greater degree of energy.

The result was the convention formed on the 16th of December, 1800, at St. Petersburgh, between Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, the just and moderate principles of which had formerly been adopted and followed by the court of London itself; and his majesty the king of Prussia, who had likewise felt this violence injurious to his states and his flag, did not hesitate to accede to that treaty.

The contracting courts were on the point of communicating to the belligerent powers the convention they had agreed to, and of forming arrangements with them, when England, by an unexpected proceeding, disconcerted

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diſconcerted this amicable deſign, by laying an embargo on all the veſſels of the naval powers of the North in her ports, and thus declaring herſelf their enemy.

It might have been expected that his majeſty the king of Pruſſia would not regard this conduct with ſatisfaction or indifference. Accordingly he ſoon after tranſmitted to the court of London the declaration already known, of the 12th of February, formally and publicly avowing his acceſſion to the convention of St. Peterſburgh, and indicating, at the ſame time, the means by which the differences that had taken place might be accommodated, and a total rupture avoided.

But, inſtead of adopting the propoſed expedient, England paſſed over in ſilence the anſwer tranſmitted to lord Carysfort, at Berlin. She continued to treat the flags of the North in a hoſtile manner; and in a note tranſmitted by the ſecretary of ſtate, lord Hawkeſbury, to the Swediſh envoy, baron Ehrenſward, dated the 7th of March, at London, ſhe has once more manifeſted thoſe falſe principles which have been ſo often refuted:

"Under theſe circumſtances, the embargo on Swediſh veſſels can be conſidered in no other view than as an act of juſt and neceſſary precaution, which will not be revoked, ſo long as the court of Stockholm continues to form a part of a confederacy, which has for its object, to impoſe by force on his majeſty a new ſyſtem of maritime law, inconſiſtent with the dignity and independence of his crown, and the rights and intereſts of his people."

A ſimilar declaration was ſoon after ſent to the court of Denmark, adding, that ſhe muſt abandon the coalition of the North, and enter into a ſeparate negotiation with England. After receiving a negative anſwer, the Engliſh chargé d'affaires, Drummond, and the plenipotentiary extraordinary, Vanſittart, left Copenhagen on the ſame day; and in the mean time the Engliſh fleet, under the orders of admiral ſir Hyde Parker, deſtined for the Baltic ſea, had actually arrived on the coaſts of Zealand.

It appears from all theſe events, that the court of London has no inclination to deſiſt from her inadmiſſible demands, and accept the propoſed means of amicable conciliation. His majeſty the king of Pruſſia therefore feels himſelf compelled, in conformity to the obligations he has contracted, to take the moſt efficacious meaſures in ſupport of the convention attacked, and to retaliate for the hoſtile proceedings againſt it: for this purpoſe, he will not only ſhut the mouths of the Elbe, the Weſer, and the Ems, but likewiſe take poſſeſſion of the ſtates belonging to his majeſty the king of England, as elector of Brunſwick-Lunenberg, ſituate in Germany.

His majeſty the king of Pruſſia accordingly demands and expects from the electoral college of privy councillors at Hanover, and from the board of generals, that they will ſubmit to this diſpoſition without delay or reply; and that they will voluntarily obey the orders which ſhall be given relative to the occupation of the electorate by the Pruſſian troops, and likewiſe with reſpect to the electoral countries. His majeſty principally demands that the Hanoverian corps which has hitherto occupied part of the northern line of demarkation, ſhall be diſarmed and be diſbanded, with a proportional

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portional part of the other troops. His majesty requires that the generals and other officers shall engage in writing, not to serve against his majesty the king of Prussia; but, on the contrary, to follow strictly his orders until the present affair be brought to a conclusion. The troops which shall continue embodied, shall be cantoned, part on the right bank of the Leine, and part on the left bank of the Aller, and behind the Luhe as far as the Elbe, where they shall remain distributed among the towns of Hanover, Gifhorn, Velgen, Lunenberg, and the other smaller towns and villages of that district. All the other places, including the fortress of Hameln, shall be delivered up to the Prussian troops, under the orders of lieutenant-general Klein. His majesty declares, at the same time, that the Prussian troops shall be subsisted at the expense of the electoral territory, commencing from the end of the month of April. His majesty has sent his cabinet minister, count Schullenburg, to notify the present declaration to the electoral college of privy councillors and commanders of troops. In these circumstances, all connexion between the electoral college and his majesty the king of England will cease; and the authorities are, in consequence, responsible to his majesty the king of Prussia for their administration and the revenues. In case, as it is to be hoped, of a voluntary submission, his majesty is disposed, and ready to promise solemnly, as well to the nobility as to the burgesses and to all the inhabitants of the electorate, the complete enjoyment of tranquillity, and the security of their property.

But, on the contrary, should the government and the general officers attempt to impede the execution of the measures taken, and oppose the entrance of the Prussian troops, his majesty would be obliged, though against his inclination, to revoke his promises, and to treat the electoral states in a hostile manner. The civil and military officers are therefore responsible for the fatal consequences which may in this case result from their conduct. For this reason his majesty advises them to submit to this summons, and to prevent the rigorous measures which will inevitably be adopted in case of a refusal.

By order of his majesty,

(Signed) Haugwitz.

Berlin, March 30, 1801.

Official Account of the Possession of Hamburgh by the Danes. Dated March 31.

IT was on the 24th instant that the Hamburgh envoy, at Berlin, received the unexpected intelligence that his majesty the king of Prussia had felt himself necessitated, from political considerations, to announce his intention to cause a part of the territory of Hamburgh to be taken possession of by the troops of his majesty, and that within a very short period.

The assurances which were communicated to the deputies of Hamburgh, were of that consoling nature as to leave no doubts on the part of the deputies from Hamburgh relative to the preservation of the independence, the trade, and commerce of that city. They concluded that the necessity of its possession would be alleviated by every possible means, especially as this city had no resource, its commerce excepted. The senate also conceived the prejudice too great to suffer a moment

to

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to be loſt in making the moſt preſſing repreſentations to his Pruſſian majeſty; and their hopes of ſucceſs were the more flattering, from the circumſtance of the aſſurances received by the Hamburgh deputies on the 26th inſtant, by which they were again informed that the execution of the views of his Pruſſian majeſty would be ſuch as to ſecure them from every ſpecies of alarm, and were by no means ſo near as might be expected.

But in proportion as theſe aſſurances were confided in, ſo much the greater was the mortification experienced by the ſenate on the 28th, when they learned from his excellency prince Charles of Heſſe, that it was his intention to occupy this city with the troops quartered in its environs. In conſequence of this notification, it was determined to ſend deputies to his highneſs at Pinneberg, to make the ſtrongeſt repreſentations againſt a meaſure ſo violent and unexpected. Theſe repreſentations, however, were fruitleſs, as the deputies, upon their return, reported that it was the intention of his highneſs to ſummon the city the next morning with his troops, and even to uſe force in caſe of reſiſtance. At the ſame time the deputies received the moſt ſatisfactory aſſurances that no fears ought to be entertained for the independence of the city of Hamburgh, or the property of individuals; and farther, that his royal highneſs would be ſatisfied with the poſſeſſion of the gates and walls of the city, without requiring any troops to be quartered in the city.

Under this imperious ſituation of affairs, the ſenate were convoked in the night, and it was the unanimous reſult of their conſultations, that it was better to yield to force, than to expoſe the city to greater evils in conſequence of any reſiſtance.

In conſequence of this determination, yeſterday morning, at eight o'clock, and of the ſummons above mentioned from prince Charles of Heſſe, and the moſt ſolemn and ſatisfactory aſſurances given to the deputies then ſent out to him reſpecting their liberty, the preſervation of their property, &c. the gate called the Millenthor, and a part of the fortifications, were immediately given up to a corps of Daniſh troops, and without the leaſt interruption of the public tranquillity.

On the ſame morning appeared the following publicandum:

"Since the preſent ſituation of public affairs has occaſioned the unavoidable approach of the Daniſh troops, which ought not to create the leaſt alarm reſpecting the ſecurity of property, or the preſervation of public tranquillity, the moſt noble burgomaſters ſeriouſly admoniſh the citizens and inhabitants to conform themſelves in every reſpect to ſuch meaſures as may tend to the preſervation of the public peace, and eſpecially to good behaviour towards the Daniſh troops; and by ſo doing, to diminiſh the diſagreeableneſs of the circumſtance; as otherwiſe the well-being of the city might be committed by the conduct of the obſtinate and unwary."

Given in a full aſſembly of the council, March 29, 1801.

Notification publiſhed at the Exchange of Hamburgh, April 3.

Whereas his majeſty the king of Denmark and Norway has found it neceſſary, for the ſtopping of the Britiſh

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British navigation and trade on the Elbe, to take poſſeſſion, for a time, of the free and imperial city of Hamburgh, by the troops under the command of his highneſs general field-marſhal prince Charles, landgrave of Heſſe, and has required, that from the 1ſt of April an embargo ſhall attach upon all Britiſh property, whether ſhips, commodities, or any other; it is hereby ordered, by conſent of the council and citizens, that all perſons ſhall detain ſuch property, and notice will immediately be given to all merchants, captains, &c. of the time, place, and manner, in which it ſhall be delivered up.

Given in council, April 3, 1801.

Convention, concluded on the 3d April, 1801, between the Regency of Hanover and the Envoys of his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia.

HIS majeſty the king of Pruſſia having cauſed to be communicated to us, by the count de Schulembourg, general of cavalry, miniſter of ſtate, of war, and of the cabinet, and his envoy here, a declaration, written and dated at Berlin, on the 30th of March, 1801, reſpecting the meaſures which his ſaid majeſty has reſolved to purſue in regard to the German ſtates belonging to his majeſty the king of Great Britain and Ireland, our moſt gracious ſovereign, in his quality of elector of Brunſwick and Lunenbourg: his Pruſſian majeſty having beſides invited us repeatedly, and in a poſitive manner, to conform to the preſent circumſtances, to enter without delay into the new engagements which he has propoſed, and for that purpoſe to draw up a convention in the moſt obligatory form, otherwiſe his ſaid majeſty would find himſelf obliged to treat in a hoſtile manner the German ſtates of the king, our moſt gracious ſovereign: we have, agreeably to circumſtances, promiſed and declared as follows:

The entrance of the Pruſſian troops into the German ſtates of his Britannic majeſty ſhall take place without their experiencing any reſiſtance, in the hopes, however, that the number will be diminiſhed as much as poſſible, to eaſe the country and the inhabitants: they ſhall conſequently obſerve, in their full extent, all the ordinances and diſpoſitions of his Pruſſian majeſty, both in regard to the entry of his troops and to the electoral ſtates. The Hanoverian troops, which have hitherto been employed in the army on the line of demarkation in the north of Germany, ſhall be diſbanded, as well as a proportionate number of the other troops of the electorate. The regency of this country, the commander-in-chief, and the different officers of theſe troops, ſhall engage not to employ the ſaid troops, nor to ſuffer them to ſerve againſt his ſaid Pruſſian majeſty, but to make them ſtrictly obſerve the royal ordinances, according to the different meaſures which it may be neceſſary to purſue. The ſaid troops ſhall be diſtributed in the cities of Hanover, Lunenbourg, Giſborn, Welzen, and in the places and garriſons on the right of the Leine, on the left of the Aller, and behind the Luhe, as far as the Elbe. All the other places, without exception, comprehending the fortreſs of Hameln, ſhall be evacuated and delivered up to the Pruſſian troops. Particular meaſures ſhall be taken that

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that all deliveries in kind shall be made by the said country of Hanover, dating from the 1st of May this year. In regard to whatever concerns the administration of this state, nothing shall be undertaken prejudicial to the present dispositions and engagements; on the contrary, the statutes and orders of the king, in regard to them, shall be punctually observed.

For these reasons we here accept, in the most solemn manner, the supreme promise made by his Prussian majesty, that he will guaranty to the German states of his Britannic majesty, their ancient constitution, their safety, and their repose; and that all their property and possessions shall be protected by every means possible.

Done at Hanover, the 3d April, 1801.

(Signed) Count de Kilmannsegge.
De Arnswaldy.
De Steinberg.
De Decken.
De Walmoden.
Simborn, field-marshal.

Letter from the Royal College of Commerce at Copenhagen, dated the 4th of April, 1801, to M. M. Muldrup and Salveson, his Danish Majesty's Consuls for Scotland, residing in Leith.

Gentlemen,

WE judge it necessary to make you acquainted with the actual situation of our affairs, as well for your government as for the information of those of our nation who may be at present in your consulage district.

You must have heard that a British fleet of 54 sail, under command of Admirals sir Hyde Parker and lord Nelson, had proceeded to the straits of the Sound, with an intention to enter the Baltic. The fleet actually appeared, and having advanced towards Cronberg, admiral Parker declared to the commandant that hostilities would commence; upon which the fleet began to pass the fortress on the 30th of March, exposed to an obstinate fire from our batteries, which was returned with equal spirit, but without material damage to either party, as the fleet kept so close to the Swedish side that it was with difficulty our balls could reach them. After having cleared the straits, the British formed themselves in a line, in sight of our floating batteries and the ships placed for our defence at the entrance of our port. There they remained tranquil until the evening of the 1st instant, when they assumed a more threatening position. On the following day (2d April) at half past ten o'clock in the morning, the most bloody and obstinate engagement took place in our roads that has ever been remembered. Our sailors have gained themselves honour and glory, and if the force of defence had been equal to that of the attack, the success would have been doubtful; but, after five hours fighting, the most part of our crews were either killed or wounded, the ships much shattered, and the floating batteries dismounted; so that it became at last necessary to yield to superior force, at least triple to that which we could employ at the point of defence. The right wing of our defence was broken through by Nelson's squadron; some of our floating batteries and ships of inferior size have fallen into the hands of the enemy. Before the engagement had seriously commenced with the

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the fleet under admiral Parker's orders, Nelson sent a flag of truce to propose a suspension of hostilities, in order to transport the wounded on shore, which was agreed to; and the suspension of arms has been prolonged, and hostilities have not yet recommenced. Nelson was on shore yesterday, and a negotiation is at present going forward, and every thing for the moment tranquil. We do not know precisely how much the enemy have suffered, nor the number of their slain; but, according to information from some of their officers, their ships have been considerably damaged, and their loss of men very numerous.

This, gentlemen, is the result of a day ever memorable to Denmark, and honourable for the intrepidity and bravery of our warriors, whose conduct even the enemy has allowed to have been most glorious. Make these facts known to their countrymen, and inform them at the same time, that we shall not fail to acquaint them of the ultimate result of these events.

(Signed) Schimmelman.
Schestted.
Smidt.
Phisseldeck, &c.

Ukases published by the Emperor Alexander, of Russia, shortly after his Accession to the Throne, prior to the 7th of April, 1801.

IT is ordered by us, that the British sailors and masters that were taken from the several British ships in a state of sequestration, and sent to various towns throughout our dominions, shall be set at liberty, and carefully conducted to the several ports from whence they were taken.

(Signed) Alexander.

As we wish to afford our faithful subjects all means of extending their trade, which is the source of prosperity, as well for the state as individuals; we order, that all the prohibitions hitherto made against the exportation of corn shall be removed; and we permit the exportation of all kinds of grain, conformably to the principles of the tariff of 1797.

(Signed) Alexander.

Russian Imperial Declaration to Sir Hyde Parker, the Admiral of the British Fleet in the Baltic.

BY the decease of his majesty the emperor Paul I. of glorious memory, the sceptre of the Russian empire has descended by right of birth into the hands of his imperial majesty, Alexander I. One of the first events under the government of this monarch has been, that he has accepted the offer which the British court had made to his illustrious predecessor to terminate the disputes which threatened the speedy breaking out of a war in the north of Europe, by an amicable convention. Faithful to the engagements which he has entered into with the courts of Stockholm, Berlin, and Copenhagen, his imperial majesty has signified to them his resolution not to act but in conjunction with his allies in whatever may concern the interest of the neutral powers. His imperial majesty could not have expected that the British court would have undertaken a hostile attack

upon

upon Denmark, at the very time when its envoy at Berlin was authorized anew to enter into conferences with the Ruſſian miniſter reſiding there.

The meaſures taken by his imperial majeſty were only in conſequence of his wiſh for peace, and the welfare of mankind, and to avoid a deſtructive miſunderſtanding between the contending powers. The hoſtilities commenced againſt Denmark, and the arrival of a hoſtile fleet, would have fruſtrated the wiſh of his imperial majeſty to maintain peace, had not this attack upon his allies been before his propoſals were known to the court of London; but as the Britiſh fleet had ſailed for the Sound before his majeſty aſcended the throne, he will wait the meaſures of the Britiſh court, when it ſhall be informed of the event.

The underſigned general of cavalry, and miniſter of ſtate for foreign affairs, deſires, therefore, in the name of his illuſtrious ſovereign, that the admiral in chief of the fleet of his Britannic majeſty ſhall deſiſt from all further hoſtilities againſt the flags of the three united powers, till his excellency ſhall have received further directions from his ſovereign; otherwiſe the admiral muſt be perſonally reſponſible for the conſequences that may enſue from the proſecution of the war.

Though prepared to repel force with force, his imperial majeſty perſiſts in his pacific ſentiments; but the juſtice and moderation of the cabinet of London muſt enable him to reconcile the demands of humanity with the duties which he owes to the honour of his crown, and the intereſts of his allies.

(Signed) Pahlen.

Subſtance of the Declaration of the Ruſſian Envoy to the Deputies of the Elector of Hanover, on the 27th April, 1801.

THAT the ſentiments of the new emperor of Ruſſia being entirely conformable to the views of the king of Pruſſia, and the principles which dictate his conduct, it had been reſolved on both parts to put an end to all hoſtile meaſures againſt England, and to terminate amicably the diſputes which have ariſen between the court of London and the allied powers of the North; and that to this effect he had diſpatched a courier to Copenhagen, to invite his Daniſh majeſty to order his troops to evacuate the town and territory of Hamburgh, and to eſtabliſh the freedom of navigation on the Elbe. The Pruſſian miniſter at the ſame time declared to M. Pelrich, deputy from Bremen, that the Pruſſian troops would evacuate the territory of Bremen and the electorate of Hanover, as ſoon as it ſhould be aſcertained that a certain power would not occupy thoſe countries.

Decree publiſhed by Order of his Swediſh Majeſty, at Stockholm, on the 20th of May, 1801.

WE, Guſtavus Adolphus, &c. make known by theſe preſents, that, having been induced to break off all commercial intercourſe, by the unfriendly meaſures of the Engliſh government, and its acts of hoſtility againſt the Swediſh flag, we have hitherto, and as long as there appeared no proſpect for a change, faithfully adhered to that reſolution, founded on ſuch firm principles, in order that we might

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faithfully obſerve the engagements entered into, and, on every occaſion, watch over the honour and dignity of our kingdoms. Having, however, now learned, that our allies have reſumed their former commercial intercourſe with England at an earlier period, and the commander of the Engliſh fleet in the Baltic having likewiſe ſolemnly declared, that the Swediſh merchant veſſels ſhall not be moleſted in the Baltic and the Cattegat, we find ourſelves no longer bound, circumſtances being thus changed, to perſevere in a reſolution which at preſent would merely tend to impede the navigation and commerce between our ſubjects and thoſe of his Britannic majeſty. We, therefore, hereby not only revoke the prohibition of trading with England, iſſued by our college of commerce on the 30th of March, but grant permiſſion to all Engliſh merchant-ſhips to ſail to and from the Swediſh ports without moleſtation, and export and import all permitted commodities, paying the cuſtomary tolls and duties which were in force before the late miſunderſtanding between England and Sweden; and we expect that the Engliſh government will by this meaſure be convinced of the juſtice and moderation of our ſentiments, and be induced to treat our ſubjects with ſimilar moderation and juſtice.

Given at our palace at Stockholm, May 19, 1801.

(Signed) Guſtavus Adolphus.

Order in Council of the 4th of June, 1801, revoking the Order of Embargo upon Ruſſian and Daniſh Veſſels.

At the Court at the Queens Houſe, the 4th of June, 1801; preſent, the King's Moſt Excellent Majeſty in Council.

WHEREAS information has been received from vice-admiral lord viſcount Nelſon, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Baltic, that a notification has been made to him by the Ruſſian government, that his imperial majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias has directed that the embargo on Britiſh veſſels detained in the ports of his dominions ſhould be taken off, and that the crews thereof ſhould be releaſed: and whereas the government of Denmark has lately manifeſted the moſt conciliatory diſpoſitions towards his majeſty, and has declared its readineſs to concur in any amicable arrangements which might be agreed upon between his majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias; his majeſty, by and with the advice of his privy council, is thereupon pleaſed to order, that the order made by his majeſty in council, on the 14th of January laſt, directing that no ſhips or veſſels belonging to any of his majeſty's ſubjects ſhould be permitted to enter and clear out for any of the ports of Ruſſia, Denmark, or Sweden, be revoked and diſcharged, ſo far as relates to ſhips and veſſels belonging to any of his majeſty's ſubjects entering and clearing out for any of the ports of Ruſſia or Denmark.

And his majeſty is hereby further pleaſed to order, that the general embargo or ſtop, directed by his majeſty's order in council, of ſame date, to be made of all Ruſſian, Daniſh, or Swediſh veſſels, then within any of the ports, harbours,

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bours, or roads of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or which ſhould thereafter arrive in any of the ſaid ports, harbours, or roads, or in the ports, harbours, or roads of any of the forts and ſettlements belonging to the crown of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or of any of his majeſty's colonies, iſlands, and plantations, together with all perſons and effects on board ſuch ſhips and veſſels; and alſo all other orders made by his majeſty in council, touching the ſaid embargo or ſtop upon the ſhips and veſſels aforelaid, be in the like manner revoked and diſcharged, ſo far as relates to the ſhips and veſſels, perſons, and effects, belonging to the ſubjects of Ruſſia and Denmark.

And his majeſty, with the advice aforeſaid, is alſo further pleaſed to order, that the order made by his majeſty in council, on the 16th of the ſaid month of January, directing that no bills drawn ſince the 29th of November laſt, O. S. (correſponding with the 10th of December, N. S.), by or on behalf of perſons being ſubjects, or reſiding in the dominions of the emperor of Ruſſia, ſhould be accepted or paid, without licence from one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, or until further ſignification of his majeſty's pleaſure, be, and the ſame is hereby revoked and diſcharged.

And his majeſty is hereby further pleaſed to order, that the order made by his majeſty in council, on the 28th of the ſaid month of January, forbidding the payment of any money or bills due or payable to or on behalf of any perſon or perſons being ſubjects of, or reſiding within the dominions of the emperor of Ruſſia, or the kings of Denmark or Sweden, or any of them, for the freight of merchandize imported in any Ruſſian, Swediſh, or Daniſh ſhip, detained under the embargo, be, and the ſame is hereby revoked and diſcharged, ſo far as relates to the payment of any money or bills due or payable for freight to the ſubjects of Ruſſia or Denmark.

And the right honourable the lords commiſſioners of his majeſty's treaſury, the lords of the admiralty, and the lord warden of the cinque ports, are to give the neceſſary directions herein as to them may reſpectively appertain.

W. Fawkener.

Letter from Sir James Craufurd to the Prince of Heſſe.

Hamburgh, May 7th, 1801.

Sir,

IN order to prevent all poſſibility of miſtake or miſconception, I think it proper to ſtate to your ſerene highneſs in writing the different points agreed upon between us this morning, in preſence of the Pruſſian miniſter, who aſſured us of the concurrence of his court.

Your ſerene highneſs declares,

1ſt. The neutrality of the Elbe completely re-eſtabliſhed from the date hereof; that conſequently all ſhips, of whatever nation, are free to navigate this river as heretofore; that even, in the unfortunate event of the recommencement of hoſtilities between Great Britain and Denmark, all ſhips at that time in the Elbe, or which may arrive on the faith of this convention, ſhall be free to return, and ſhall not, in any caſe whatever, be ſubject to embargo or moleſtation of any kind.

2dly. That no Britiſh property

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which shall arrive in the Elbe from the date hereof shall in any case whatever be subject to sequestration or embargo.

3dly, That if the court of Copenhagen should at any time be disposed to cancel this convention, six weeks notice of such intention shall be given. Till the expiration of these six weeks this convention shall remain in full force.

On the other hand, I engage on my part to give such passports to all Danish vessels sailing from the ports of the Elbe to the Greenland fishery, and to those bound to Norway with provisions, as may be necessary to ensure them against all molestation from British ships of war during their voyage, and their return to the Elbe.

I have the honour to be, &c.&c.

(Signed) James Craufurd.

[The Prince of Hesse returned an answer, agreeing to the above conditions.]

Declaration delivered in Writing by his Highness Field-Marshal Prince of Hesse, to the Most Noble Council of Hamburgh, on the 20th May, 1801.

AN essential alteration having taken place in political relations in consequence of late events, the king my master has been induced likewise to make changes in the measures he had adopted.

His majesty has thought proper to remove the obstruction to the English navigation and trade on the Elbe, which he had considered as necessary to oppose the hostilities commenced by England; and in consequence of a convention concluded between me and the English envoy, residing in the circle of Lower Saxony, and which has been made public, the free navigation of the Elbe is already restored. The present change of circumstances has however removed the necessity of the object which his majesty proposed in the occupation of Hamburgh by his troops, that is, the obstruction of the trade and navigation of England on the Elbe; and as his majesty, when he resolved on this measure, solemnly and publicly declared by me, that he only yielded to the imperious and unavoidable pressure of circumstances, he is the more readily inclined to limit its enforcement to the duration of those relations which produced its necessity.

His majesty has therefore commanded we to withdraw the troops under my command, from the free imperial city of Hamburgh and its territory. On this occasion it is my duty to testify the particular satisfaction of his majesty, and my own acknowledgments for the orderly and peaceable behaviour of the inhabitants of this city, both at the time of their entrance, and during their stay, and for the suitable regulations made by the magistracy and senate in that respect.

Note from the Hanoverian Ministry to the Royal Prussian Directorial Counsellor Von Dohm, respecting the withdrawing of the Prussian Troops from the Electorate of Hanover.

Hanover, June 14, 1801.

HIS majesty the king of Prussia having, in the beginning of April of the present year, unexpectedly ordered the corps of his troops

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troops hitherto acting with the army of observation, formed for the general defence, to take possession of the districts in Germany belonging to his Britannic majesty, as elector of Brunswick and Lineburg, the causes and motives which induced his majesty the king of Prussia to resort to this extraordinary and unexpected measure, were stated to the German ministry of his Britannic majesty, in a written declaration of the 30th of March of the present year, on the part of his Prussian majesty, by his minister of state, of war, and of the cabinet, count Schulenberg, sent to Hanover for that purpose. These causes and motives were founded on the differences that had arisen between his Britannic majesty and the crowns of Denmark and Sweden, on account of the Petersburgh convention of the 16th of December, 1800; on the proceedings of England against Denmark and Sweden; on the engagements of his Prussian majesty with his allies, agreeably to his accession to the Petersburgh convention, and particularly on the circumstance that England would not resort to means for an amicable settlement of these differences. Hence his Prussian majesty deduced his resolution "not only to shut up the mouths of the Elbe, Weser, and Ems, but also to take possession of the states of his majesty the king of the united islands of Great Britain and Ireland, situated in Germany, and belonging to him as elector of Brunswick and Luneburg." His Prussian majesty added in his letter addressed to his Britannic majesty's German ministers at Hanover, "that the said declaration related to the differences that had arisen between England and the northern powers, and was to be considered merely as a necessary consequence of the disagreeable circumstances that had taken place." By the circumstances and causes therefore, assigned as the reason on the part of Prussia, the agreement was relative, which his Britannic majesty's German ministry, together with the general commanding his German troops, were obliged to enter into on the 3d of April of the present year, and whereby, under the existing circumstances, the entrance of the Prussian troops, and their maintenance by the king's German possessions, were agreed to.

It is now well known that the circumstances and causes formerly existing have been entirely changed, and removed in the course of the month of April, and still more in the course of the month of May; so that circumstances, at present, are rather the reverse. Hostilities have ceased between England and the northern powers; and so far from rejecting means for an amicable settlement, immediate friendly missions have even taken place on both sides; and the crowns of Denmark and Sweden, imitating the wise sentiments of his majesty the present emperor of Russia, are actually engaged in amicably settling the differences with the British government. The happy issue of these peaceable negotiations not being doubted by any of the parties, the British government began rendering commerce free in the Baltic; Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, have restored the commercial intercourse by public declarations; and the embargo formerly laid on English ships in Russia is again taken off. His

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majeſty the king of Pruſſia having, during the courſe of theſe ſucceſſive changes, permitted all commercial and other intercourſe with his Britannic majeſty's ſubjects, which has likewiſe remained undiſturbed by England, with reſpect to the Pruſſian ſtates, it is evident that his Pruſſian majeſty has no longer any cauſe for allowing meaſures to be taken, on his part, againſt the crown of England. But his majeſty the king of Pruſſia has alſo declared already that the meaſures which had been formerly taken, could now no longer be deemed applicable and expedient; ſo that, on the part of Pruſſia, the ſhutting up of the rivers is entirely annulled, and the navigation of the Elbe and Weſer has been again declared free. His majeſty the king of Pruſſia, from the ſame conſideration, has likewiſe demanded from the crown of Denmark, and effected, the evacuation of Hamburgh and Lubeck, and withdrawn the troops that had been ſtationed in the dutchy of Oldenburg, for the purpoſe of occupying the left banks of the Weſer.

It is impoſſible, therefore, that the occupation of his Britannic majeſty's dominions, which had been connected with the ſhutting up of the rivers, and grounded on the ſame cauſes, can alone remain and continue. On the contrary, it appears evidently, from the whole courſe of the proceedings, that the cauſes no longer any where exiſt which furniſhed the ground of the letter addreſſed to the king's miniſtry here by the king of Pruſſia, on the 30th of March, the declaration made by his majeſty in conſequence thereof, and the agreement afterwards entered into. It is impoſſible to conſider this agreeably to his majeſty's wiſdom and juſtice, but as ſomething which cannot be miſtaken by him, and which, in the events already ſtated, has already been admitted and acknowledged by his majeſty. The ſentiments which his majeſty the king of Pruſſia entertains for his Britannic majeſty, and the friendly relations ſubſiſting between him and the crown of England, will, therefore, leave no doubts on this ſubject, without being under the neceſſity of recurring to the nature of the conſtitution of the German empire, and the union of its ſtates with each other, with reſpect to this buſineſs, which relates entirely to a foreign kingdom, and which has always been, and will ever remain, foreign to the dominions which his majeſty poſſeſſes as elector, and as a ſtate of the German empire.

All this is grounded on the firm confidence which his Britannic majeſty here wiſhes to manifeſt, that his majeſty the king of Pruſſia will not heſitate to withdraw his troops from his majeſty's German dominions; and that maintenance will no longer be demanded for theſe troops, which has been ſo burdenſome to the country. The king's miniſter has, for this purpoſe, addreſſed this note to the Pruſſian directorial counſellor, Von Dohm, entreating him, at the ſame time, to forward it to his court, and to effect a ſpeedy reſolution in conſequence.

(Signed) L. S. by the royal and electorial miniſtry.

To the royal Pruſſian directorial counſellor Von Dohm, at Horneburgh.

Correſpondence

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Correſpondence of Mr. King, the American Miniſter, with Lord Hawkeſbury.

Great Cumberland-place, March 13, 1801.

My lord,

THE decree of the vice-admiralty court of Naſſau, a copy of which is annexed;* condemning the cargo of an American veſſel, going from the united ſtates to a port in the Spaniſh colonies, upon the ground that the articles of innocent merchandize compoſing the ſame, though *bona fide* neutral property, were of the growth of Spain, having been ſanctioned, and the principles extended, by the prize courts of the Britiſh iſlands, and particularly by the court of Jamaica, has been deemed ſufficient authority to the commanders of the ſhips of war and privateers cruiſing in thoſe ſeas, to fall upon and capture all American veſſels bound to an enemy's colony, and having on board any article of the growth or manufacture of a nation at war with Great Britain.

Theſe captures, which are vindicated by what is termed the belligerent's right to diſtreſs his enemy by interrupting the ſupplies which his habits or convenience may require, have produced the ſtrongeſt and moſt ſerious complaints among the American merchants, who have ſeen, with indignation, a reaſon aſſigned for the capture and confiſcation of their property, which is totally diſregarded in the open trade carried on between the Britiſh and Spaniſh colonies, by Britiſh and Spaniſh ſubjects, in the very articles, the ſupply of which, by neutral merchants, is unjuſtly interrupted.

The law of nations, acknowledged in the treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between the united ſtates and Great Britain, allows the goods of an enemy to be lawful prize, and pronounces thoſe of a friend to be free.

While the united ſtates take no meaſures to abridge the rights of Great Britain, as a belligerent, they are bound to reſiſt, with firmneſs, every attempt to extend them, at the expenſe of the equally inconteſtable rights of nations, which find their intereſt and duty in living in peace with the reſt of the world.

So long as the ancient law of nations is obſerved, which protects the innocent merchandize of neutrals, while it abandons to the belligerent the goods of his enemy, a plain rule exiſts, and may be appealed to, to decide the rights of peace and war: the belligerent has no better authority to curtail the rights of the neutral, than the neutral has to do the like in regard to the rights of the belligerent; and it is only by an adherence to the ancient code, and the rejection of modern gloſſes, that fixed and preciſe rules can be found, defining the rights, and regulating the duties of independent ſtates.

This ſubject is of ſuch importance, and the eſſential intereſts of the united ſtates, whoſe policy is that

* In the caſe of the American brigantine Leopard, Ropes maſter, laden in part with Malaga wines. The cargo, ſo far as it conſiſted of wines, though regularly imported into the united ſtates, was condemned by judge Kerſal, on the 20th of October, 1800, "the ſame being productions of the Spaniſh territory in Europe, and bound to the Tranſatlantic parts of that empire."

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of peace, are so deeply affected by the doctrines which, during the present war, have been set up in order to enlarge the rights of belligerents, at the expense of those of neutrals, that I shall, without loss of time, submit to your lordship's consideration such farther reflections respecting the same, as its great importance appears to demand.

In the mean time, as the decisions referred to cannot, from the unavoidable delay which attends the prosecution of appeals, be speedily reversed, and as the effect of those decrees will continue to be the unjust and ruinous interruption of the American commerce in the West India seas, it is my duty to require that precise instructions shall, without delay, be dispatched to the proper officers in the West Indies and Nova Scotia, to correct the abuses which have arisen out of those illegal decrees, and put an end to the depredations which are wasting the lawful commerce of a peaceable and friendly nation.

With great consideration and respect, I have the honour to be, your lordship's most obedient and most humble servant,

Rufus King.

Lord Hawkesbury, &c. &c.

Downing-street, April 11, 1801.

Sir,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 13th of last month, and to inform you that, in consequence of the representation contained in it, a letter has been written, by his majesty's command, by his grace the duke of Portland, to the lords commissioners of the admiralty; a copy of which letter I herewith enclose to you, for the information of the government of the united states.

I have the honour to be, with great truth, sir, your most obedient humble servant,

(Signed) Hawkesbury.

Rufus King, esq. &c. &c.

Whitehall, 30th March, 1801.

My lords,

I transmit to your lordships herewith a copy of the decree of the vice-admiralty court of Nassau, condemning the cargo of an American vessel, going from the united states to a port in the Spanish colonies; and the said decree having been referred to the consideration of the king's advocate-general, your lordships will perceive from his report, an extract from which I enclose, that it is his opinion, that the sentence of the vice-admiralty court is erroneous, and founded in a misapprehension or misapplication of the principles laid down in the decision of the high court of admiralty referred to, without attending to the limitations therein contained.

In order, therefore, to put a stop to the inconveniences arising from these erroneous sentences of the vice-admiralty courts, I have the honour to signify to your lordships the king's pleasure, that a communication of the doctrine laid down in the said report should be immediately made by your lordships to the several judges presiding in them, setting forth what is held to be the law upon the subject by the superior tribunals, for their future guidance and direction. I am, &c.

Portland.

The lords commissioners of admiralty.

Extract

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Extract of the Advocate-General's Report, dated March 16, 1801.

I have the honour to report, that the ſentence of the vice-admiralty court appears to me erroneous, and to be founded in a miſapprehenſion or miſapplication of the principles laid down in the deciſion of the court of admiralty referred to, without attending to the limitations therein contained.

The general principle reſpecting the colonial trade has, in the courſe of the preſent war, been to a certain degree relaxed in conſideration of the preſent ſtate of commerce. It is now diſtinctly underſtood, and it has been repeatedly ſo decided by the high court of appeal, that the produce of the colonies of the enemy may be imported by a neutral into his own country, and may be re-exported from thence even to the mother-country of ſuch colony; and, in like manner, the produce and manufactures of the mother-country may, in this circuitous mode, legally find their way to the colonies. The direct trade, however, between the mother-country and its colonies, has not, I apprehend, been recogniſed as legal, either by his majeſty's government, or by his tribunals.

What is a direct trade, or what amounts to an intermediate importation into the neutral country, may ſometimes be a queſtion of ſome difficulty. A general definition of either, applicable to all caſes, cannot well be laid down. The queſtion muſt depend upon the particular circumſtances of each caſe. Perhaps the mere touching in the neutral country to take freſh clearances may properly be conſidered as a fraudulent evaſion, and is, in effect, the direct trade; but the high court of admiralty has expreſly decided (and I ſee no reaſon to expect that the court of appeal will vary the rules) that landing the goods and paying the duties in the neutral country breaks the continuity of the voyage, and is ſuch an importation as legalizes the trade, although the goods be reſhipped in the ſame veſſel, and on account of the ſame neutral proprietors, and be forwarded for ſale to the mother-country or the colony.

(A true copy.)

Jas. Wagner, ch. clerk.

Correſpondence between M. Otto and the Tranſport Board, reſpecting the Capture of Fiſhermen on the Coaſt of France by the Engliſh.

No. I.

The Commiſſary of the French Republic reſiding in England, to Citizen Talleyrand, Miniſter for Foreign Affairs.

I Have this moment received the annexed letter from the commiſſioners of the tranſport office, as well as the other enclоſed from Mr. Dundas, which informs me of a reſolution of again ſubjecting French fiſhermen to all the rigours of the Britiſh cruiſers. This violent and unexpected determination is founded upon allegations ſo vague, that I cannot refrain from demanding, with great earneſtneſs, a more explicit eclairciſſement. In the mean time, it is my duty to tranſmit you news of this importance as early as poſſible, that our poor fiſhermen may be informed thereof, and keep out of the way of the Engliſh cruiſers, who will not fail to take them wherever

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wherever they may be found. I write at the same time to the commissioners of the marine at Dunkirk, Calais, Dieppe, at Havre, and at Port Maloe, requesting them to make known to the fishermen the danger with which they are menaced, although, in casting my eye over the letter of Mr. Dundas, of the 21st of January, but which has only been delivered to me this day, I have reason to believe that this information will arrive too late, and that a great number of unfortunate persons will have been victims to a measure, the true motives of which I am not able to guess at.

Health and respect,

(Signed) Otto.

No. II.

Transport Office, Jan. 29, 1801.

The lords commissioners of the admiralty have just transmitted us a copy of the letter of the 21st current, which they have received from the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, intimating that, after the motives therein mentioned, it is his majesty's pleasure that the orders to take or destroy French fishing-boats be again put in execution; and that we do require the return of those fishermen who have been sent home on parole. We herein enclose you the copy of the letter in question, and the relative orders; we demand therefore, through your means, the immediate return into this country of all the fishermen released on their parole; and we further inform you, that those among them who shall neglect to conform to those orders will be treated with all the rigour of the laws, should they again be made prisoners.

We are, &c.

(Signed) Rup. George.
Amb. Serle.
John Schank.

No. III.

Downing-street, Jan. 21, 1801.

My lords, having received various advices that the French government has abused the favours granted to the fishermen of that nation, according to the letter addressed to your lordships the 30th of May last, by which I informed you, that it was his majesty's pleasure that the orders given to cruisers, to capture all the fishermen, as well as their boats, should be recalled; having even reason to believe, that those fishermen, as well as their boats, are in requisition, and sent to Brest to equip and arm the fleet there; and that those who were released from prison, in order to be sent home under the express condition of not serving again, are comprised in that requisition; I am ordered to signify to your lordships, that it is his majesty's pleasure, that the orders given in consequence of my letter of the 28th January, 1798, be again put in execution, as far as relates to the fishermen and their boats; and that the commissioners charged with the service of the conveyance and guard of prisoners of war be authorized to demand, in the usual mode of communication, that all those set at liberty upon parole be required to return into this country; and to signify to them, as well as the French government, that those among them who neglect to obey these orders shall be made to suffer all the rigours of the laws of war, in case they should again be

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be made prisoners, while serving the enemies of his majesty. I am, &c.

(Signed) Henry Dundas.

No. IV.

Letter of Citizen Otto, to the Transport Office, dated London, 13 Pluviose, (Feb. 2.)

Sirs,

I have received the letter which you have done me the honour to address to me, of the 21st of this month, to communicate to me that of the right honourable Mr. Dundas, by which that secretary of state announces to the lords of the admiralty the resolution of government to authorize anew the practice of privateering and cruising against the French fishermen, and its intention to recall those who had been sent home on their parole. Conformably with your desire, I have not lost a moment to communicate this information to my government. In waiting for its orders, I confine myself to a few observations which naturally present themselves upon reading the paper which you have addressed to me.

After having declared that, from various reports, the basis of which is absolutely unknown, the French government had "abused the indulgence granted to fishermen," Mr. Dundas adds, "that there is every reason to fear that the French fishermen and their vessels are now put in requisition to arm the Brest fleet, and that even the fishermen sent back on their parole are also put in requisition."

I must be equally surprised and pained to see a mere apprehension placed instead of a proof. It is, however, upon this apprehension, that is founded a measure hostile to the peaceable class of fishermen most of them old men, invalids, or children, and consequently incapable of hurting the enemies of their country. I should think that, to justify an aggression contrary to a formal convention and the ordinary usages of war, something more would be necessary than conjectures. But even admitting that the apprehensions of the British ministry were founded, and that they could authorize anticipated reprisals, the rigorous treatment with which all fishermen are menaced, will not reach such of them as could have been hostile to England; for the fishermen who may be taken in consequence of the new orders given by the admiralty, are not certainly those who are supposed in requisition; they are men who, from the simplicity of their manners and industrious habits, cannot give any umbrage, but the unjust persecution of whom will excite upon the whole coast the liveliest sensation. It is upon these unfortunate men that will fall anew all the weight of a war in which they have taken no part. Were it otherwise, and were these men really disposed and capable of bearing arms, the hostility ordained against them would be precisely the means of increasing the number of the sailors of the Brest fleet, since, being unable to continue their fishing, they would be obliged to return to port, where they would find employment and bread. The rigorous determination of the British government would be less surprising, if it were founded upon positive hostilities on the part of the fishermen, or upon a refusal of justice on the part of the French government. But it is consolatory to me to remark, that, since the arrangements made in May last, you have

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have communicated to me but one solitary complaint, stating, that some fishing vessels had been fitted out as fire ships at Flushing. This complaint (indirectly connected with this discussion, as the question did not relate to fishermen, but only to their vessels) was immediately redressed. I had the honour to write to you the 7th Vendemiaire (29th Sept.) "that without standing upon the incontestable right which a power has to dispose of its vessels at pleasure, the first consul yielding, upon that occasion, to the desire of avoiding every thing that might prove injurious to an arrangement which he wished religiously to observe, had given orders to restore these fishing vessels to their original destination."

The convention relating to the neutrality of the fishermen being reciprocal, would be equally justified in expressing its apprehensions with respect to the employment of the English fishermen. It might fear, with some foundation, that these men are liable to be pressed, that they have been sent to Portsmouth or Plymouth, where their vessels have served for the purpose of carrying military stores and provisions into these ports, and for the same reason it might have ordered the seizure of their persons and property.

The doctrine of treating as enemies those who might become such would be new as it would be dangerous. It would so confound the public code of nations, that all confidence would be banished for ever from their mutual relations. More natural equity opposes itself to the punishment of a man for what he might do. Those who have submitted to your government the reports on which its late determination is founded cannot therefore have any other view but to add to the numerous subjects of irritation which a protracted war has produced between two nations, and to multiply the obstacles which oppose themselves to a reconciliation in exasperating a poor but numerous class of inhabitants of the coast.

I must further observe, gentlemen, that the letter of Mr. Dundas, of the 21st of January, was not transmitted to me until the 30th, and that the communications you have prayed me to make in consequence of that letter will be very much subsequent to the orders which appear to have been given to seize the fishermen. If the delay has had for its object to allow the British cruisers time to execute the measures of government before they who are the object of them could be apprized, I protest, solemnly, against a violation so manifest of the arrangement made between us touching the neutrality of fishermen, and reciprocally observed up to the present day; and I shall earnestly claim the restoration of all those who shall have been taken before the resolution of the British government for exercising hostilities against fishermen shall have been known on the coast of France.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Otto.

No. V.

The Commissioner of the French Republic in England, to Citizen Talleyrand, Minister for Foreign Affairs.

London, 14th Pluviose,
(Feb. 3.)

Citizen minister,

The violent determination taken by the British government against the French fishermen may be attributed to several causes; the apprehensions

hensions with which the preparations of our squadron at Brest inspire it, the anger which it feels at the northern confederacy, and the repugnance with which it finds itself obliged to clothe the French prisoners. While waiting for the orders of my government, I thought it my duty to protest against a measure, so much the more unjust, as it is not founded upon any known fact, and as it appears to have been put in execution before our fishermen had been apprized of the new persecution ordered against them. I joined to this a copy of my letter to the commissioners charged with the exchange of prisoners. I have observed particularly upon the slowness with which these new orders have been communicated to me, as if it were wished to afford the English cruisers time to take our fishermen before they were informed of the danger that threatened them. This gratuitous hostility against peaceful men will not fail to be appreciated, even in England, when the public shall be informed of it. In France it must produce the effect which is feared here; it must really give sailors to the national marine. The neutrality of the fishermen was reciprocal: the French government had, therefore, as much right as the British ministry to complain of the pressing and employing of the fishing boats for the provisioning of the military ports. Not only it has not done so, but, upon a mere representation relative to the arming of some French fishing boats at Flushing, it gave immediate orders that they should be employed only for their original destination. It thence results that, far from complaining of the hostile use made of English fishermen, we have, on our side, pushed our scrupulousness so far as not even to arm the vessels built for fishing. The contrast must be remarked; it characterises the spirit and the dispositions of the two governments.

Health and respect,

(Signed) Otto.

No. VI.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs, to Citizen Otto, at London.

Paris, 27 Pluviose, 9th year.

The first consul, who has been made acquainted with your letter of the 10th inst. and of the letters therein contained, directs me to inform you, that you will have to quit London, and return to France. In preparing so to do, you will address a paper to the British government, in which you will express yourself as follows:

The undersigned having made known to his government the declaration of the British ministry, which signifies, that the French fishermen will be pursued and captured like all other enemies vessels, a declaration by virtue of which a great many fishing boats have already been taken, the first consul has considered that if, on the one hand, this act of the British government, contrary to all the usages of polished nations, and the common law which governs them, even in times of hostility, should give to the present war an obstinate and ferocious character, which might destroy the very resemblance and remembrance of customs adopted in civilized (loyal) war; on the other, it was impossible not to behold that this conduct in the British government tended still more to exasperate the two nations against each other, and to remove the period of peace to

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a greater diſtance; that in conſequence the underſigned could remain no longer in a country where not only every diſpoſition to peace is abjured, but where the laws and uſages of war are diſregarded and violated. The underſigned has therefore received orders to leave England, where his ſtay is found wholly uſeleſs; and he is inſtructed, at the ſame time to declare, that it having always been the firſt deſire of the French government to contribute to a general pacification, and a maxim with it to ſoften, as much as poſſible, the evils of war, the government cannot, on its part, think of making the poor fiſhermen victims of the prolongation of hoſtility; it will therefore abſtain from all ſuch repriſals, and, on the contrary, it has given orders for all French ſhips, armed for war, or cruiſing, to leave the occupation of fiſhermen uninterrupted.

(Signed) Ch. M. Talleyrand.

No. VII.

Letter to Citizen Otto, in Reply to the above Note, from the Tranſport Office.

Sir, — Since I had the pleaſure of ſeeing you this morning, I have been informed that the ſecretary of ſtate has recommended to the lords of the admiralty, to ſuſpend the execution of the order given for taking fiſhing veſſels, until his majeſty can be conſulted on the ſubject.

I have the honour to be, &c.

R. George.

Tranſport-office, 2 P. M.
March 3, 1801.

Treaty of Peace, concluded at Luneville, Feb. 9, 1801, between the French Republic, and the Emperor and the Germanic Body.

HIS majeſty, the emperor and king of Hungary and Bohemia, and the firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, having equally at heart to put an end to the miſeries of war, have reſolved to proceed to the concluſion of a definitive treaty of peace and amity.

His ſaid imperial and royal majeſty, not leſs anxiouſly deſirous of making the Germanic empire participate in the bleſſings of peace, and the preſent conjuncture not allowing the time neceſſary for the empire to be conſulted, and to take part by its deputies in the negotiation; his ſaid majeſty having, beſides, regard to what has been agreed upon by the deputation of the empire at the preceding congreſs at Raſtadt, has reſolved, in conformity with the precedent of what has taken place in ſimilar circumſtances, to ſtipulate in the name of the Germanic body.

In conſequence of which the contracting parties have appointed as their plenipotentiaries, to wit,

His imperial and royal majeſty, the ſieur Louis Cobentzel, count of the holy Roman empire, knight of the golden fleece, grand croſs of the royal order of St Stephen and of the order of St. John of Jeruſalem, chamberlain, and privy counſellor of his imperial and royal majeſty, his miniſter for conference, and vice-chancellor of court of ſtate;

And the firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, has appointed citizen Joſeph Bonaparte, counſellor of ſtate; who, after having exchanged their full powers, have agreed to the following articles:

Art.

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Art. I. There ſhall be henceforth and for ever, peace, amity, and good underſtanding, between his majeſty the emperor, king of Hungary and Bohemia, ſtipulating, as well in his own name as that of the Germanic empire, and the French republic, his ſaid majeſty engaging to cauſe the empire to give ratification in good and due form to the preſent treaty. The greateſt attention ſhall be paid on both ſides to the maintenance of perfect harmony, to preventing all hoſtilities by land and by ſea, for whatever cauſe, or on whatever pretence, and to carefully endeavouring to maintain the union happily eſtabliſhed. No aſſiſtance or protection ſhall be given, either directly or indirectly, to thoſe who would do any thing to the prejudice of either of the contracting parties.

II. The ceſſion of the ci-devant Belgic provinces to the French republic, ſtipulated by the 3d article of the treaty of Campo Formio, is renewed here in the moſt formal manner, ſo that his imperial and royal majeſty, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic empire, renounces all his right and title to the ſaid provinces, which ſhall be poſſeſſed henceforth as its ſovereign right and property by the French republic, with all the territorial property dependant on it. There ſhall alſo be given up to the French republic by his imperial and royal majeſty, and with the formal conſent of the empire:

1ſt, The comté of Falkenſtein, with its dependencies.

2d, The Frickthall, and all belonging to the houſe of Auſtria on the left bank of the Rhine, between Zarzach and Baſle; the French republic reſerving to themſelves the right of ceding the latter country to the Helvetic republic.

III. In the ſame manner, in renewal and confirmation of the 6th article of the treaty of Campo Formio, his majeſty the emperor and king ſhall poſſeſs in ſovereignty, and as his right, the countries below enumerated, viz. Iſtria, Dalmatia, and the Venetian iſles in the Adriatic dependant upon thoſe countries, the Bocca de Cattaro, the city of Venice, the canals and the country included between the hereditary ſtates of his majeſty the emperor and king; the Adriatic ſea, and the Adige, from its leaving the Tyrol to the mouth of the ſaid ſea; the towing path of the Adige ſerving as the line of limitation. And as by this line the cities of Verona and of Porto Legnano will be divided, there ſhall be eſtabliſhed, on the middle of the bridges of the ſaid cities, draw-bridges to mark the ſeparation.

IV. The 18th article of the treaty of Campo Formio is alſo renewed thus far, that his majeſty the emperor and king binds himſelf to yield to the duke of Modena, as an indemnity for the countries which this prince and his heirs had in Italy, the Briſgau, which he ſhall hold on the ſame terms as thoſe by virtue of which he poſſeſſes the Modeneſe.

V. It is moreover agreed, that his royal highneſs the grand duke of Tuſcany ſhall renounce, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, having any right to it, the grand dutchy of Tuſcany, and that part of the iſle of Elba which is dependant upon it, as well as all right and title reſulting from his rights on the ſaid ſtates, which ſhall be henceforth poſſeſſed in complete ſovereignty, and as his own property,

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perty, by his royal highneſs the infant duke of Parma. The grand duke ſhall obtain in Germany a full and complete indemnity for his Italian ſtates. The grand duke ſhall diſpoſe at pleaſure of the goods and property which he poſſeſſes in Tuſcany, either by perſonal acquiſition, or by deſcent from his late father, the emperor Leopold II. or from his grandfather, the emperor Francis I. It is alſo agreed, that the credits, eſtabliſhments, and other property of the grand dutchy, as well as the debts ſecured on the country, ſhall paſs to the new grand duke.

VI. His majeſty the emperor and king, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic empire, conſents that the French republic ſhall poſſeſs henceforth in complete ſovereignty, and as their property, the country and domains ſituated on the left bank of the Rhine, and which formed part of the Germanic empire: ſo that, in conformity with what had been expreſsly conſented to at the congreſs at Raſtadt, by the deputation of the empire, and approved by the emperor, the towing path of the Rhine will henceforth be the limit between the French republic and the Germanic empire; that is to ſay, from the place where the Rhine leaves the Helvetic territory, to that where it enters the Batavian territory.

In conſequence of this, the French republic formally renounces all poſſeſſion whatever on the right bank of the Rhine, and conſents to reſtore to thoſe whom it may belong, the fortreſſes of Duſſeldorff, Ehrenbreitſtein, Philipſburgh, the fort of Caſſel, and other fortifications oppoſite to Mentz, on the right bank, the fort of Kehl, and Old Briſach, on the expreſs condition that theſe places and fortreſſes ſhall continue and remain in the ſtate in which they were at the time of their evacuation.

VII. And as, in conſequence of the ceſſion which the empire makes to the French republic, ſeveral princes and ſtates of the empire will be diſpoſſeſſed, either altogether or in part, whom it is incumbent upon the Germanic empire collectively to ſupport, the loſſes reſulting from the ſtipulations in the preſent treaty, it is agreed between his majeſty the emperor and king, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic empire, and the French republic, that in conformity with the principles formally eſtabliſhed at the congreſs of Raſtadt, the empire ſhall be bound to give to the hereditary princes who ſhall be diſpoſſeſſed on the left bank of the Rhine, an indemnity, which ſhall be taken from the whole of the empire, according to arrangements which on theſe baſes ſhall be ultimately determined upon.

VIII. In all the ceded countries, acquired or exchanged by the preſent treaty, it is agreed, as had already been done by the 4th and 10th articles of the treaty of Campo Formio, that thoſe to whom they ſhall belong ſhall take them, ſubject to the debts charged on the ſaid countries; but conſidering the difficulties which have ariſen in this reſpect, with regard to the interpretation of the ſaid articles of the treaty of Campo Formio, it is expreſsly underſtood, that the French republic will not take upon itſelf any thing more than the debts reſulting from the loans formally agreed to by the ſtates of the ceded countries, or by the actual adminiſtration of ſuch countries.

IX. Immediately after the change of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, the ſequeſtration impoſed on the

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the property, effects, and revenues of the inhabitants or proprietors, shall be taken off. The contracting parties oblige themselves to pay all they may owe for money lent them by individuals, as well as by the public establishments of the said countries, and to pay and reimburse all annuities created for their benefit on every one of them. In consequence of this, it is expressly admitted, that the holders of stock in the bank of Vienna, become French subjects, shall continue to enjoy the benefit of their funds, and shall receive the interest accrued, or to accrue, notwithstanding any sequestration, or any demand, derogatory to their rights, particularly notwithstanding the infringement which the holders aforesaid, become French subjects, sustained by not being able to pay the 30 and 100 per cent. demanded by his imperial and royal majesty, of all creditors of the bank of Vienna.

X. The contracting parties shall also cause all the sequestrations to be taken off, which have been imposed on account of the war, on the property, the rights, and revenues of the emperor, or of the empire, in the territory of the French republic, and of the French citizens in the states of his said majesty or the empire.

XI. The present treaty of peace, and particularly the 8th, 9th, 10th, and 13th articles, are declared to extend to, and to be common to the Batavian, Helvetic, Cisalpine, and Ligurian republics. The contracting parties mutually guaranty the independence of the said republics, and the right of the people who inhabit them to adopt what form of government they please.

XII. His imperial and royal majesty renounces, for himself and his successors, in favour of the Cisalpine republic, all rights and titles arising from those rights, which his majesty might claim on the countries which he possessed before the war, and which, by the conditions of the 8th article of the treaty of Campo Formio, now form part of the Cisalpine republic, which shall possess them as their sovereignty and property, with all the territorial property dependant upon it.

XIII. His imperial and royal majesty, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic empire, confirms the agreement already entered into by the treaty of Campo Formio, for the union of ci-devant imperial fiefs to the Ligurian republic, and renounces all rights and titles arising from these rights on the said fiefs.

XIV. In conformity with the 2d article of the treaty of Campo Formio, the navigation of the Adige, which serves as the limits between his majesty the emperor and king, and the navigation of the rivers in the Cisalpine republic, shall be free, nor shall any toll be imposed, nor any ship of war kept there.

XV. All prisoners of war on both sides, as well as hostages given or taken during the war, who shall not be yet restored, shall be so within forty days from the time of signing the present treaty.

XVI. The real and personal property unalienated of his royal highness the archduke Charles, and of the heirs of her royal highness the archduchess Christina, deceased, situated in the countries ceded to the French republic, shall be restored to them on condition of their selling them within three years. The same shall be the case also with the landed and personal property of their royal highnesses the archduke Ferdinand

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dinand and the archduchess Beatrice, his wife, in the territory of the Cisalpine republic.

XVII. The 12th, 13th, 15th, 16th, 17th, and 23d articles of the treaty of Campo Formio, are particularly renewed, and are to be executed according to their form and effect, as if they were here repeated verbatim.

XVIII. The contributions, payments, and war impositions, of whatever kind, shall cease from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty on the one hand, by his imperial majesty and the Germanic empire, and on the other by the French republic.

XIX. The present treaty shall be ratified by his majesty the emperor and king, by the empire, and by the French republic, in the space of thirty days, or sooner if possible; and it is agreed that the armies of the two powers shall remain in their present positions, both in Germany and in Italy, until the ratification shall be respectively, and at the same moment, exchanged at Luneville.

It is also agreed, that ten days after the exchange of the ratifications, the armies of his imperial and royal majesty shall enter the hereditary possessions, which shall, within the same space of time, be evacuated by the French armies; and thirty days after the said ratifications shall be exchanged, the French armies shall evacuate the whole of the territory of the said empire.

Executed at Luneville, Feb. 9, 1801.

Louis Count Cobentzel.
Joseph Bonaparte.

Letter from his Imperial Majesty to the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire, 21st Feb. 1801.

THE plenipotentiary of the French government has made to the minister plenipotentiary, whom I have sent to Luneville to negotiate a peace with the French republic, the decided proposition, that, in the treaty to be concluded, I should stipulate also for the peace of the empire, in my quality of supreme chief. The imperial plenipotentiary knew, that the right and co-operation of the electors, princes, and states of the empire, in the objects relative to peace, was fixed in a precise manner by the fundamental laws of the Germanic empire: that also my imperial authority as restricted upon that point by the laws of the Germanic constitution, unless I should have previously received full powers, particularly from the empire, to treat in its name. This consideration, as well as others, entirely opposite to the said proposition, was not received, as my plenipotentiary had a right to expect, from its force and constitutional evidence. On the contrary, the proposition has been insisted upon by express reference to the example of the negotiations for peace at Rastadt and of Baden, in 1714, and its admission has been demanded in a manner so pressing and determined, that the negotiations would have been entirely broken off, if my plenipotentiary, after having in vain exhausted representation, had not at last consented, by referring also to the negotiations of Rastadt and Baden. My perplexity was very great, in my quality of supreme head of the empire, when I learned from my plenipotentiary this state of things, and I considered it a duty of the highest importance to reflect upon it maturely. The idea of approving the step taken by my plenipotentiary, and in conse-

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quience of that approbation of beginning to treat for the peace of the empire, although I had it not by any means in contemplation to withhold the treaty from the examination and ratification of the general diet, was in conflict in my mind with my juſt reſpect for the rights and attributes of the ſtates of the empire. But, on the other ſide, the conſideration of the melancholy ſituation in which a conſiderable part of Germany now is, that of the ſtill more unhappy fate with which the ſuperiority of the French threatens the empire, ſhould peace be longer deferred; in fine, a regard to the general wiſh and univerſal anxiety ſoon to enjoy the bleſſings of peace; all theſe motives combined together, ſtrongly perſuaded me not to diſapprove of the acquieſcence of my miniſter in the demand of the French plenipotentiary: in conſequence therefore of the declaration made by my plenipotentiary, approved by myſelf, reſolved (ſuch being the poſture of our affairs) alſo to determine the conditions of a peace for the empire. Your enlightened and well-known wiſdom induces me to believe, that moſt probably, if under the preſſure of ſimilar difficulties, you would have adopted a ſimilar line of conduct.

I feel ſome conſolation in acquainting you by the preſent, with the true ſtate of affairs, and with the reſolution which I have taken; I alſo derive a ſtill greater conſolation from the conſciouſneſs of the purity of the motives by which I am actuated (motives which are juſtified by ſeveral declarations made by the diet, and more particularly by the imperial decree of the 19th May, 1795) according to which it cannot appear to have been my intention to encroach on the rights of the imperial ſtates. And when the treaty of peace ſhall be ſubmitted to the electors, princes, and ſtates, and to the general diet, you have the moſt perfect and conſolatory conviction, that in the negotiation of that treaty I previouſly took every meaſure and precaution conformably to the above-mentioned example of the negotiations of Raſtadt and of Baden, in 1714, to ſecure the rights of the ſtates of the empire.

Concluſum of the General Diet of the Empire, of the 7th of March, 1801.

His highneſs the prince Charles Alexander of Tour and Taxis, principal commiſſary of his imperial majeſty to the general diet, &c. he is notified by the preſent, in the name of the electors, princes, and ſtates of the empire. The general diet of the empire has ſeen by the moſt gracious imperial decree of the 21ſt, publiſhed the 25th of February of this year, and by the two pieces thereunto annexed, the important motives which have determined his imperial majeſty to acquieſce in the formal demand of the French republic, "to conclude and ſign, in his quality of ſupreme chief, the peace of the empire, after the example of the negotiations of Raſtadt and Baden." His majeſty having in conſequence ſigned that peace, has deigned to ſubmit it to the general diet, in order that the electors, princes, and ſtates, ſhould ratify it in the name of the empire; and that, upon real and juſt conſiderations of the loſſes which all delay may occaſion to Germany, they may accelerate that ratification, and the concluſum to be adopted for that purpoſe,

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poſe, which his imperial majeſty waits for with impatience. The three colleges of the empire have deliberated upon that imperial decree, with all the attention which the importance of its contents demands, and with as much expedition as the urgency of circumſtances preſcribes; and as, from the motives amply detailed in the letter of his imperial majeſty, annexed to the decree of the imperial committee, and from the reiterated aſſurances of his majeſty relatively to the acknowledged and inconteſtable rights of the empire, they may be entirely upon the right of co-operation in matter of peace, which the Germanic conſtitution gives to the electors, princes, and ſtates, the force of the reaſons which have induced his imperial majeſty to conclude the peace in the manner announced, as alſo the conſideration of the melancholy ſituation of Germany, which ſo anxiouſly wiſhes for peace, and has ſuch preſſing need of it, have determined the general diet of the empire to decree, that the peace, concluded the 9th of February, at Luneville, with the French republic, by his imperial majeſty, in his quality of ſupreme chief of the empire, ſhall be ratified on the part of the emperor and of the empire; that a concluſum on this ſubject ſhall be immediately addreſſed to his imperial majeſty, expreſſive of the lively gratitude which the diet entertains for the cares and patriotic zeal of his majeſty in that negotiation; and that his imperial majeſty ſhall be requeſted to ratify and confirm the treaty of peace, in his own name, and in that of the German empire. Wherefore the councillors, ambaſſadors, and envoys preſent of the electors, princes, and ſtates of the empire, recommend themſelves to his highneſs the principal commiſſary.

Signed at Ratiſbon, 7th March, 1801.

Decree of the Imperial Committee, delivered to the Diet of Ratiſbon, the 10th March, 1801.

His imperial majeſty has ſeen, by the concluſum of the 7th of this month, the deciſion taken by the general diet of the empire, after mature and prompt deliberation. It is a great conſolation, and a real ſatisfaction to his imperial majeſty, to ſee that his paternal cares and his efforts to procure a ſpeedy peace for the empire are acknowledged by the diet, and excite its livelieſt gratitude. His majeſty, having equally at heart to ſpeedily remove the burden of war which ſtill oppreſſes a part of the empire, thinks it his duty to give, without delay, his approbation, in his quality of ſupreme chief, to the aforeſaid concluſum; and in conformity with that approbation, he will tranſmit, with the utmoſt diſpatch, to Luneville, the formal and ſolemn act of ratification in his own name, and that of the empire.

Concluſum decreed in the Sitting of the 30th April, and publiſhed on the 1ſt of May, 1801, at Ratiſbon.

His moſt ſerene highneſs Charles Alexander, prince of Tour and Taxis, and principal commiſſary of his imperial majeſty at the diet, the electors, princes, and ſtates of the empire.

The general diet of the empire has obſerved, with the moſt lively ſentiments of gratitude, in the decree of

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of the imperial commiſſion of the 3d March, publiſhed on the 5th, a freſh proof of the conſtant ſolicitude of his majeſty the emperor for the conſtitution and rights of each ſtate. It has deliberated as maturely as is required by an object of ſuch extenſive intereſt, and which is to aſſure the well-being and tranquillity of Germany, "on the mode of cooperation of the ſtates of the empire for the completement of the peace concluded on the 9th February, in the preſent year, at Luneville, with the French republic, for the abſolute adjuſtment of the points on which a particular arrangement was neceſſary." Actuated by the conſiderations which reſult from the ſtate of things, the concurrence of circumſtances, and relations ſo various, and conſequently implicated in an affair ſo eminently important, the diet has reſolved and decreed as follows:

That his imperial majeſty ſhall be moſt reſpectfully entreated, in a moſt humble concluſum, to be pleaſed to take upon himſelf the adjuſtment of all the objects which, according to the treaty of Luneville, of the 9th February, in the preſent year, were reſerved for particular arrangement, and to terminate thereby the work of peace, in conformity to the exact knowledge he poſſeſſes of the nature of negotiations, his wiſdom, conſtant ſolicitude for the well-being and general proſperity of Germany, of every ſtate of the empire, of the equeſtrian order, and the tranquillity and happineſs of all the ſubjects of the empire, and particularly in the caſe in queſtion, with that attention which characterizes the goodneſs of heart of his imperial majeſty, and which will tend to alleviate as much as poſſible the damage and loſs which will reſult to the empire and the individuals, who muſt inevitably ſuffer by ſacrifices and changes which indiſpenſable neceſſity, and the love of the general good of the empire, may require. His imperial majeſty ſhall alſo be entreated to communicate to the diet the reſult of the ſteps he ſhall have adopted, before they ſhall have been fixed and decreed, in order that it may promptly deliberate on the ſubject, and ſubmit the deciſion it ſhall come to to the ratification of his imperial majeſty.

Decree of his Imperial Majeſty, relative to the Concluſum of the Empire on the 30th of April, 1801, addreſſed to the Aſſembly of the General Diet of the Germanic Empire; dated at Vienna, 36th June, 1801.

HIS majeſty having ſeen, by the concluſum of the empire of the 30th April laſt, that the general diet of the empire, after having maturely deliberated on the decree of the imperial commiſſion of the 3d of March, relative to the cooperation of the ſtates of the empire in the convention, neceſſary for terminating entirely the work of peace, has decreed as follows:

[*Here follows the Tenor of the Concluſum of the 30th of April*, 1801.]

The great importance of the object of this concluſum has impoſed on his imperial majeſty the neceſſity of examining its contents in all their relations, and in every point of view. The ſupreme chief has been guided by the moſt ſcrupulous attention in making this examination: he preſents the reſult of it to the general

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diet in the following declaration, which is conformable to the conſtitution of the empire, to the paternal ſentiments of its chief, and which diſplays, at the ſame time, the characteriſtics of the moſt perfect frankneſs.

His imperial majeſty may admit, that the negotiation which he has been charged to prepare relates to the French government, although there is nothing ſaid of it in the concluſum, and though many votes which have been counted with the majority appear to have a different meaning on the ſubject of this commencement.

His imperial majeſty aſſerts, therefore, applying to the name of the things the proper and literal meaning, and the accuſtomed terms of the public law and of negotiations, that the preparation to be made with the French government, taken in its wideſt extent, does not contain powers for negotiating, ſtill leſs for concluding and ſigning.

His imperial majeſty was confirmed in this opinion by the conſideration that the plenipotentiaries of the ſtates of the diet, to whom the terms of public law and of diplomacy are ſo familiar, would certainly have made uſe of the terms uſual in affairs of this kind, if the majority of the votes of the ſtates of the empire wiſhed to charge him with more than the preparation.

Theſe conſiderations ſuggeſt the following queſtions:

Will the French government be diſpoſed to take part in this preparation, when the powers granted for this purpoſe are ſo limited? and, if this participation is not declined immediately on the firſt propoſition, will it conſent to enter into the material points of ſuch a negotiation, ſo far as that the reſult of it may be regarded as a ſolid baſis for a new deliberation of the diet, which may ſerve to direct the formation of the concluſum which ſhall be ſubmitted to his imperial majeſty?

The example of the congreſs for peace, held ſome years ſince at Raſtadt, contradicts this ſuppoſition, the government at that time having declined to treat till the deputation of the empire ſhould have received unlimited powers; and what has recently occurred, ſhould, when it is compared with the contents of the concluſum, give ſuch indications of the intentions of the French government, if not amounting to certainty, at leaſt highly probable, that there is no ground to expect, much leſs to promiſe, a ſatisfactory reſult, conformable to the wiſhes expreſſed in the ſaid concluſum. It is for theſe reaſons, to ſay nothing of others, which ariſe from the nature of a commiſſion ſo limited, and from the events which have taken place, that his imperial majeſty founds the conviction of which he here declares with the fulleſt frankneſs, "That the end which the general diet of the empire propoſes, in entreating his imperial majeſty to take charge of the preparatory arrangements, will not be attained."

In many of the votes it has been foreſeen, that his imperial majeſty might have motives ſufficiently important to render him ſcrupulous of accepting ſuch a commiſſion. Actuated ſolely by the alleged reaſons, and to avoid expoſing the dignity of the ſupreme chief to be compromiſed by an attempt which may be without ſucceſs, his imperial majeſty cannot conſent to accept the commiſſion of the general diet, and to give his approbation, in the character

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ter of ſupreme chief, to this part of the concluſum. His imperial majeſty, accuſtomed, and ever anxious not to depart from the line marked by the conſtitution, gives his conſent to the co operation of the empire in the uſual form of deliberation of the diet; inaſmuch as the majority of the ſtates of the empire having pronounced their opinions on the different modes of the co-operation of the empire, to wit, in the firſt place, plenipotentiaries, to give it to his majeſty; ſecondly, an extraordinary deputation of the empire; thirdly, by deliberation in general diet, even laying aſide the firſt modes propoſed by many ſtates of the empire (and among them his imperial majeſty, alſo in the character of a ſtate of the empire) in favour of the co-operation of the diet aſſembled under its ſupreme chief; it is therefore no longer within the powers of the ſupreme chief of the empire, to approve of the firſt modes of co-operation, which might yet be proper to accelerate the work of peace, which is ſtill to be brought to a termination. The principal objects which are yet to be regulated by a particular convention to terminate the work of peace, are beſides known by the treaty of peace of Luneville reciprocally ratified; and after the knowledge that his imperial majeſty has of the negotiations for peace at Luneville, nothing is wanting to examine and judge of theſe objects but ſome hiſtorical information concerning public law, and ſome ſtatiſtical reſearches equally acceſſible to all perſons, and which may be rectified in the moſt certain manner by all who have a particular intereſt in the diſcuſſion.

In this ſtate of things, when the diet of the empire has given the preference to the co-operation of the ſtates in diet, by the empire, aſſembled under its chief, the relations which ſubſiſt between the ſtates of the empire and its chief, and the manner of conducting the affairs of the empire, require (and it will be one of the firſt operations of the diet of the empire), that a complete concluſum on the objects to be regulated, in order to perfect the peace by a particular convention, ſhould, as ſoon as the neceſſary diſcuſſion of the objects will permit, be laid before the emperor to be ratified. His majeſty awaits with paternal ſolicitude the preſentation of this concluſum, which will ſatisfy his expectation, if the general diet, in forming it, will conduct itſelf according to the general rules which it has already eſtabliſhed with much wiſdom in the laſt concluſum.

His imperial majeſty is moreover, &c.—(Then comes the protocol uſual at the end of the imperial decrees.)

Signed at Vienna, and ſanctioned by the ſecret ſeal of his imperial majeſty, 26th June 1801.

(Signed) The prince of Colloredo, Mansfield.

(L. S.) Pierre Antoine, baron Defranc.

Official Note from M. Von Dohm to the Chapter of the Biſhopric of Munſter.

THE underſigned miniſter plenipotentiary of his majeſty the king of Pruſſia, at the electoral court of Cologne, privy counſellor, and ambaſſador to the circles of the lower Rhine and of Weſtphalia, is charged by his moſt gracious maſter to make the following declaration,

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in his majesty's name, to the reverend chapter of the bishopric of Munster:

By the premature death of his highness the elector of Cologne, sincerely lamented by his majesty, the bishopric of Munster has become vacant, at the very moment when the empire, assembled under its supreme chief, is on the point of entering into considerations and resolutions, in what manner and to what extent the 7th article of the treaty of peace at Luneville is to be carried into execution.—According to this article, and the result of the negotiations of the congress at Rastadt, on which it is founded, it is already settled, that those secular states which have suffered by ceding the left banks of the Rhine, shall receive indemnifications, which are to be effected by secularizations. The confiscation of our higher and lower ecclesiastical foundations is therefore unavoidable; a change which, probably, may be the fate of every individual of them, and only the termination of the business of the peace of the empire will decide which of the ecclesiastical countries will retain their present constitution, and which will receive another. From this situation of affairs it naturally follows, that on ecclesiastical foundations becoming vacant during this state of uncertainty, the elections must provisorily be suspended, lest they might impede the indemnifications stipulated in the treaty of peace, and prevent the final tranquillization of the distracted German empire. A suspension, grounded on such momentous reasons, cannot prejudice the election, if it should afterwards take place, and will evidently promote the welfare of the country, as the election of a regent, probably for a short period only, could not produce any alteration in the decision of a higher authority, and would cause an unnecessary burden to the country. His Prussian majesty has already communicated to the supreme chief of the empire his sentiments on this business, agreeably to the harmony subsisting between them, and rests firmly assured, from some previous intimations of his imperial majesty, and from his wisdom and his care for the welfare of the empire in general, that he will consider this object in the same point of view, which his majesty the king likewise expects from his high co-estates, to whom he has also declared himself on that subject, with patriotic frankness, at the diet. His majesty entertains no doubt that the same considerations will not have escaped the enlightened wisdom of the reverend chapter; and from this conviction he declares, by means of the undersigned, his most gracious expectation and desire that the election of a new regent of the bishopric of Munster may be suspended for the present till its future fate shall have been decided agreeably to the treaty of peace. His majesty's sole object in so doing is, to remove all obstacles to a final and general tranquillization of Germany, and to promote the real good of a country for which he is sincerely interested, from neighbourly and other respects, and to which he will further grant that protection by which it has so happily escaped all the calamities of the late destructive war. His majesty has likewise particularly charged the undersigned to assure the reverend chapter, and all individual members thereof, of his most gracious sentiments under all circumstances. But in return, his majesty expects with confidence, that his

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his well-meant advice and desire will be observed without any difficulty, and that the reverend chapter will, as soon as possible, give his majesty the assurance that, before the final adjustment of the treaty of peace, and the decision of the future relations of the bishopric of Munster, thereby effected, a fresh election will not be spoken of.

This is the declaration which the undersigned is charged to make. He entertains no doubt that the reply with which he shall be honoured by the reverend chapter, will fully answer his majesty's expectations, which he begs may be speedily addressed to him at Hindesheim. In expectation whereof the undersigned embraces this opportunity of renewing to the reverend chapter his esteem and attachment.

(Signed) Dohm.

Hornburg, Aug. 15, 1801.

Declaration of the Prussian Ambassador at Vienna to the Ministers from the States of the Empire there.

The universally esteemed elector of Cologne and prince bishop of Munster being dead, his Prussian majesty cannot but think it adequate to his own interest, and to that of all the other states of the empire whom it concerns, as well as to the empire in general, on account of its present great embarrassment, that the archbishopric of Cologne, as well as the bishopric of Munster, do remain vacant for the present. His imperial majesty has therefore been requested not to authorize any fresh election, which, if it should nevertheless take place, he would be obliged to declare null and void;

Letter of the Minister Talleyrand to Citizen Bacher, Chargé d'Affaires of the French Republic, to the Diet of the German Empire, dated Paris, the 6th of Fructidor, August 24.

Citizen,

THE first consul has received from Berlin a notification of the orders transmitted to count Gortz, to declare to the diet that his Prussian majesty, in consequence of the 5th and 7th articles of the treaty of Luneville, will oppose the election of a new elector of Cologne and bishop of Munster, and in general all appointments to any ecclesiastical states and possessions that may become vacant in the empire by death. Such a declaration is in fact too conformable to the spirit and tenor of the treaty of peace, for the French government not to support it with all its power. In whatever manner the regulation of the indemnifications may be definitively settled, the principle by which they are to be adjusted has been prescribed by France, and she will take care that it be carried into effect. You will, therefore, citizen plenipotentiary, officially require, in the name of the French government, and in concurrence with the declaration of his Prussian majesty, that all appointments to ecclesiastical dignities and possessions, and especially the election of a new elector of Cologne and bishop of Munster, be deferred till the indemnifications for the hereditary princes shall be definitively determined. I greet you.

(Signed) Ch. Mau. Talleyrand.

Protest of the King of Prussia against the Election of the Archduke Anthony to the Bishopric of Munster, published

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publiſhed in the Berlin Gazette, 26th September, 1801.

AFTER the déceaſe of his royal highneſs the elector of Cologne and biſhop of Munſter, his majeſty the king, in conſequence of the principles adopted in the treaty of peace of Luneville, ſignified to the diet of Ratiſbon, and likewiſe to the two chapters of the electorate and biſhopric, that, during the preſent negotiations, no new elections ought to take place to any dignities of the empire that might become vacant. But as the chapter of Munſter has, notwithſtanding, proceeded to the election of a new biſhop, his majeſty has judged it proper to tranſmit the following proteſt directly to the aſſembled ſtates of the empire, and to the two chapters, Munſter and Ahrenſberg:

"His majeſty the king of Pruſſia has explicitly declared, both to the general aſſembly of the empire, and in other places, that he conſidered it as a rational, neceſſary, and undeniable conſequence of the principle of ſecularization, eſtabliſhed by the treaty of Luneville, that during the negotiations relative to the application and carrying into effect of this principle, no new election ſhould take place to any of the ſuperior or inferior dignities of the empire, in caſe of the deceaſe of the preſent poſſeſſors. Many of the moſt conſiderable of the ſtates of the empire, and particularly the powers with which the empire is concluding peace, have publicly approved this conſequence. The juſtice of this meaſure was equally evident with the important influence which it muſt have on the regulation of the indemnities; and the more neceſſary was it to preſerve the latter from all new difficulties and perplexities, in order, happily, to reſtore peace to Germany, and fulfil the wiſh of every true patriot in the empire. It was, therefore, to have been expected, with confidence, that the two chapters of the electorate of Cologne and biſhopric of Munſter, lately vacated by a much-lamented death, would, with a view to the general good, have deferred proceeding to any new election; as they muſt have foreſeen, that by ſuch election they could in no manner avert their impending fate, but only contribute to clog with difficulties the final ſettlement of the peace of the empire. His majeſty, with great regret, ſees that theſe two chapters have, notwithſtanding, proceeded to a new election, and finds himſelf compelled to renew the declaration which, on the 31ſt of laſt month, he made to the diet of the empire in the electoral college, and which he ſignified to the members of the ſaid two chapters, by his privy directorial counſellor and miniſter plenipotentiary, Von Dohm, in which he explicitly proteſts againſt any new election of an archbiſhop of Cologne and biſhop of Munſter; and declares that he will conſider ſuch election as void, and will not acknowledge, or in any manner take cognizance of any pretended new archbiſhop and biſhop, until the affair of the ſecularizations ſhall be finally ſettled."

Proteſt delivered in by the Electoral Chapter of Cologne, on the 28th September, 1801, *againſt the Declarations of Pruſſia and France.*

HIS Pruſſian majeſty having, by his plenipotentiary, Von Dohm, in a note, dated the 5th of laſt

laſt month, given the epiſcopal and archiepiſcopal chapter of Cologne to underſtand, that the election of a new head of the high archbiſhopric ſhould for the preſent be ſuſpended, and not take place till the conditions of peace are completely carried into execution; but the electoral chapter having, by the before-mentioned miniſter, cauſed to be repreſented to his royal majeſty, the actual ſtate of the buſineſs of the election, which had already proceeded to a certain extent, at the time of the receipt of the note on that ſubject, the chapter might have indulged the conſoling hope, that this conſtitutional proceeding, to which they conſidered themſelves not only entitled, but alſo bound by duty, and which, upon this principle in all its remote conſequences, they were no longer in a ſituation to delay, would be favourably received by his majeſty. Nothing could more ſenſibly increaſe the deep feeling of grief for the loſs of the prince, ſo much lamented by his country and ſubjects, than the altogether unexpected propoſition, which not only his Pruſſian majeſty cauſed to be made to the aſſembled ſtates of the empire, by his ambaſſador at the diet, in regard to the ſuſpenſion of the new election, but which was alſo ſupported with the like view by the French government, in the moſt pointed terms, in the note delivered in by the French chargé d'affaires, Bacher. The impreſſion made by theſe was ſtill farther increaſed by that meaſure, which immediately followed, of his electoral highneſs the elector Palatine, a prince, whoſe has, in the courſe of upwards of one hundred and eighty years, given five princes to this electoral ſtate of Cologne, whoſe anceſtors, from the earlieſt time, have invariably been the ſupport and protection of the catholic religion, and of the catholic ſtates. Penetrated by the duties which they owe to the church and the electoral territories, now intruſted to their adminiſtration, the cathedral chapter ſee themſelves here reduced to the moſt melancholy neceſſity of declaring to the diet, in the very place, where, in conſequence of the moſt unhappy of all wars, every effort was required from the moſt reſpectable ſtates of the empire, for the defence of their native country; ſince the ſubjects of the electoral ſtate, till the concluſion of the peace of Luneville, have fought in conjunction with the empire, and that they might fulfil their obligations for the preſervation of the country; in ſight of this very country, the preſervation of which could be only effected by the perſevering efforts of united ſtrength; in the preſence of thoſe ſtates and ſubjects, who devoted their utmoſt ſtrength to this great national end; in the preſence of the united ſtates, with whom they have ſo faithfully co-operated towards the maintenance of their rights and political exiſtence; in the preſence of all Europe, as witneſs of their ſpirit and true German firmneſs; and laſtly, in the moſt ſolemn manner, as an example to future generations: that whatever are and may be the conſequences to their individual members, the chapter will not permit themſelves to be interrupted in the courſe of their conſtitutional duties, from a regard to any circumſtances having relation only to themſelves as ſuch; that faithful to the duties which the welfare of the countries committed to them requires; faithful to their relations to the empire, aſſembled under its ſupreme head, and to its ſtates; faithful

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faithful to the conſtitution, and adhering with ſtedfaſt regard to the true intereſt of all the ſtates, ſtrong only by their union, and thereby alone ſecure—they neither can nor will be prevented by any obſtacle, the removal of which lies in their power, from doing that which they are entitled to do, and what they are in duty bound to do; that from the pure conſciouſneſs of rectitude, which will be vindicated by the lateſt generations, unconcerned about thoſe conſequences of the future peace, which reach farther than binding reſtrictions, or extend beyond that line, within which they muſt, on account of their duty, confine themſelves, they will purſue that path alone, which has for its only object, the maintenance of that conſtitution, which was ſo ſacred to the fathers of the preſent generation, and under which, ſufficiently inſtructed by a courſe of experience of all kinds, they lived quiet, happy, and contented, in the enjoyment of an ever improving poſterity.

With the moſt unbounded confidence in the conſtitution of the country, as the only and broad baſis of the pureſt and moſt permanent happineſs of the German nation, to the maintenance of which, therefore, the latter has the moſt indiſputable right, the chapter ſee themſelves, in the name of that nation, under whoſe protection the electoral territories of Cologne ſtand, called upon to add to this ſolemn declaration, the equally ſolemn proteſtation againſt all thoſe ſteps, which are incompatible with the ſpirit and ſubſtance of this conſtitution, and do not find their moſt evident vindication in the limitations of the already ratified peace of Luneville, but are rather altogether in oppoſition to the laſt electoral union, ſo ſacredly ſworn to by the high electoral predeceſſors of his majeſty the king of Pruſſia, as elector of Brandenburgh, and his electoral highneſs the prince Palatine; to the inviolable maintenance of which all the high members of this firſt and moſt reverend college are moſt preſſingly called upon by their princely promiſe ſo ſolemnly pledged, their dignities and their honours, and all that is dear to them.

The chapter ſee themſelves the more imperiouſly called upon to adopt this proceeding, as neither in this peace, nor in the negotiations of Raſtadt, is there a trace to be found of any general reſult of obligatory force, which impoſes as a duty on the chapter, the moſt unfortunate neceſſity of putting their hands to the annihilation of the conſtitution of theſe countries, and on their part of laying the foundation of a revolution which will deſtroy the conſtitution, the catholic religion, and at the ſame time the ſtates attached to it; and the firſt ſtep to which, the non-accompliſhment of the election, would manifeſtly lead to the ruin of the ſtate.

Unfortunately the chapter feels what the preſſure of circumſtances may do; and that the preſent ſituation of things is ſuch, as will render changes neceſſary: it cannot, however, be unknown, that it is to be lamented that ſtates, which, through the whole courſe of the war, have devoted all their ſtrength to the ſervice of their country, ſolely to keep thoſe circumſtances at a diſtance, which are now ſo preſſing; which have done every thing to ſave their country and its conſtitution; to which, from their conduct in conformity to their connexion with the empire, not the ſmalleſt reproach can be made of any crime, of any

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ſingle intention, directed to any other object than the general welfare; that theſe ſtates and their ſubjects, and that too under circumſtances, to which they are ſo utterly ſtrangers in a political and legal ſenſe, in the midſt of the negotiations and the concluſion of peace, ſhould be the ſacrifice; that inſtead of enjoying the recompence of their ſervices, even before the peace has definitively decided upon their lot, they muſt ſee their apprehenſions well founded, and that their relations will be eſſentially altered, and their conſtitution deſtroyed.

Surely it is unjuſt that thoſe ſtates and ſubjects, who in the peace of Campo Formio ſaw their further exiſtence already ſecured, to which, in the negotiation of Raſtadt, which immediately followed this peace without the intervention of a new war, this exiſtence was alſo ſecured, as far as related to the right bank of the Rhine; and, in reſpect to which, finally, the peace of Luneville, in conformity to theſe negotiations, does not contain any determination derogatory to this view; which have lately made ſuch a ſacrifice, by their retiring from the left bank of the Rhine, as is ſcarcely the caſe with the few ſtates which lie on this ſide, ſhould, at the end of their ſtruggle, be altogether overthrown. If juſtice, without which every ſtate muſt be ruined, preponderates in the deliberations and reſolutions of the diet upon this affair, which, by the propoſition of the elector of Brandenburgh, has been committed to their deciſion; the ſtates of the empire, with only half a look at futurity, cannot concur: ſhould the contrary be the caſe, the confirmation is not to be expected from the paternal feelings of his imperial majeſty; the guarantying powers of the German conſtitution come thereby within the limits, where the moſt active participation in its ſupport is the firſt active duty of their guarantee; even from the peaceful diſpoſition of the government of the French ſtate, which is now the neighbour of the electoral ſtate, it cannot be thought, that it (the French government) more correctly informed of the true ſtate of things, will in any manner encroach upon that which, through the peace of Luneville, has been ſtipulated, by further pacifications; or, at leaſt, will act from motives which can in no reſpect operate diſadvantageouſly on the real conſequences of the peace, in any other manner, than that which may agree with the true relations of independent and ſelf-exiſting ſtates, which are already ſo nearly connected by the ties of friendſhip and peace: from every circumſtance there is ſo much the leſs reaſon to ſuſpect any operation of the French government diſadvantageous to the future exiſtence of the electoral ſtate, as the maintenance of its neighbour and her conſtitution muſt, conſidered under all points of view, be more advantageous to it (the French government) than any alteration ever can, which would hurt that neighbour; but more eſpecially, as it muſt be freſh in the recollection of that government, that the conduct of the deceaſed prince of this electoral ſtate, from the firſt occaſion of this moſt unfortunate war, remained unchangeable, confined within the limits of the duties preſcribed to him by his relation to the empire.

In this view of the buſineſs, on theſe principles reſts the confident hope of the chapter, that, in their conſtitutional path, the only one which

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which is permitted them to tread, from which they neither will nor dare to depart one ſtep, they will not only not be prevented from maintaining the ſituation of the electoral ſtate committed to them as it was in the lifetime of his late electoral highneſs, but that in the further deliberations upon thoſe circumſtances which may yet come in queſtion, in conſequence of the arrangement of the peace of Luneville, they ſhall receive back its whole exiſtence, conformably to the conſtitution, and to the relations which immediately roſe out of the latter.

The chapter of the biſhopric and archbiſhopric of Cologne flatter themſelves, and after this declaration and proteſtation, which has been extorted from them by their duties to the church and to the ſtate, according to the principles here announced with German openneſs; neither his majeſty the king of Pruſſia, nor the moſt high ſtates of the empire, will give any further conſequence to the propoſition, on the delay of an election of an elector of Cologne, which muſt be diſadvantageous to the maintenance of this electoral ſtate; and ſo much the more, as this propoſition, by prolonging the work of peace, may produce the effect, that the greater part of the German church will remain without a head, not without the utmoſt prejudice for the catholic religion, and thence muſt ariſe a moſt diſtracted ſtate, as the preſent ſituation of affairs gives reaſon to expect.

It cannot, certainly, eſcape the enlightened judgment of the excellent embaſſy of the elector of Brandenburgh, on a nearer examination, that the *Praeguděz*, from the year 1761, to the year 1763, introduced in the further counter-reſervation propoſed on the 14th of the preſent month, as a protocol of the princes of the empire, can have, by no means, any influence on the preſent caſe, as at that time the before-mentioned biſhopſics were altogether under the power of the enemy, in which caſe, under ſuch impreſſion, and amid the din of arms, all laws, and the execution of them, muſt neceſſarily be ſilent; but at preſent, on the contrary, the ſtate of peace, ſo much wiſhed for by all Germany, has been already long enjoyed; and has even, when the unhappy enſigns of war waved in its ſouthern provinces, the biſhopric of Munſter enjoyed, at a diſtance from all the troubles of war, the valuable fruits of a ſtate of peace and neutrality, under the wiſe protection of his Pruſſian majeſty himſelf, who moſt magnanimouſly ſecured it againſt all the events of war and hoſtility; at the ſame time it is known to every one, who is acquainted with the circumſtances of that time, that in the before-cited caſe the right of the conſtitution was in the fulleſt manner preſerved againſt all force by the ſupreme court decree of his imperial majeſty, of the 8th of May 1761.

Concluſum of the Diet of Ratiſbon.—The Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire to his Serene Highneſs Charles Alexander, Prince of Tour and Taxis, &c. principal Commiſſary of his Imperial Majeſty at the Diet.

THE three colleges of the empire having taken into deliberation the decree of the imperial commiſſion

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commiſſion of the 26th of June of this year, have thought that the arrangement of the different objects which yet remain to be regulated, for the completion of the peace in the general aſſembly of the empire, would be unavoidably expoſed to great and numerous difficulties on account of the uſual manner of treating affairs in it. In conſequence it has been decreed,

1. That the right of co-operation on the part of the ſtates of the empire in the work of peace, ſhall be exerciſed by means of an extraordinary deputation.

2 That in order to avoid, in this ſo difficult affair, all delay, as well as a new complication, the ſaid deputation ſhall be reſtricted to eight members, obſerving the equality of rights relative to religion.

3. That to this effect, there ſhall be elected in the college of electors, Mentz, Saxony, Bohemia, and Brandenburgh; and in that of the princes, Bavaria, Wirtemberg, the grand maſter of the Teutonic Order, and Heſſe-Caſſel.

4. That there ſhall be reſerved, nevertheleſs, in an expreſs manner to the prelates and courts of the empire, as well as to the college of imperial cities, the right which they have of participating in the deputation of the empire.

5. That there ſhall be conferred on the part of the empire, upon the deputies elected, full and unlimited powers to examine, treat, and regulate, in concert with the French government, the objects which, by the 5th and 7th articles of the treaty of Luneville, have been reſerved for a particular arrangement.

6. That there ſhall, however, be given to this deputation, expreſs directions, in order that, at the fixing of the indemnities by ſecularizations, they may have continually before their eyes, and obſerve exactly as a direct rule for their operations, the reſtrictive clauſe by which the deputation of the empire at the congreſs of Raſtadt gave in their note of the 4th of April, 1798, their adherence to theſe indemnities, and that, conformably to this clauſe, they proceed in this affair with all the meaſures, precautions, and reſerves, which the maintenance of the Germanic conſtitution in all its relations requires, together with the re-eſtabliſhment and affirming the well-being of the ſtates, the immediate nobility and other members of the empire, which reſt upon this conſtitution.

7. Finally, that the ſaid deputation ſhall preſent for his imperial majeſty's and the empire's ratification, the reſult of their operations, and the reſolution they ſhall have taken in conſequence.

The preſent reſolution ſhall be addreſſed to his imperial majeſty (as is done by this preſent) to receive the ſanction of the ſupreme chief of the empire, in the room of the concluſum which he had demanded, and as a modified propoſition, for the important motives above mentioned, for the exerciſe of the right of co-operation of the ſtates of the empire in the completion of peace. There ſhall be given at the ſame time to his imperial majeſty moſt humble thanks for the paternal ſolicitude of which he has given on this occaſion freſh proofs for the maintenance of the Germanic conſtitution and the rights of the empire.

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The concluſum ſhall be ſent to Vienna to-morrow by an extraordinary courier.

October 3, 1801.

Declaration of the principal Imperial Commiſſary of his Imperial Majeſty, to the Ambaſſadors, Envoys of the Electors, Princes, and States of the Holy Roman Empire, as follows:

Ratiſbon, Nov. 19, 1801.

Scarcely had the treaty of peace, concluded at Luneville by his imperial majeſty with the French republic, been communicated to the diet by an imperial decree, of the 21ſt of February, in order that it might be ſpeedily ratified in a concluſum, when his imperial majeſty invited that aſſembly by a ſecond imperial decree, of the 3d of March, to lay before him, as ſoon as poſſible, a reſolution upon the mode by which the ſtates of the empire were to co-operate in the particular arrangement which ſtill remained to be made, ſo much had his imperial majeſty at heart in his paternal ſolicitude that the affairs of the peace of the empire ſhould be entirely terminated with all poſſible ſpeed; but the mode of the co-operation of the ſtates of the empire in that work, which his majeſty afterwards acceded to, and in conſequence of which the affair in queſtion was to be treated in the uſual forms, the deliberations of the diet ſoon experienced ſuch powerful and multiplied obſtacles, that even the diet reſolved afterwards to adopt another mode for the exerciſe of the right of co-operation of the ſtates of the empire, and to ſubmit to the imperial ſanction that new mode, inſtead of the complete reſolution which his majeſty had demanded by the decree of the 26th June laſt.—This deciſion has been, as is known, carried into execution by means of the concluſum of the diet of the 2d of laſt month, the principal tenor of which imports, that the co-operation of the ſtates of the empire, in the objects which ſtill remained to be regulated by a particular arrangement to terminate the work of peace, ſhould take place by means of an extraordinary deputation of the empire; and that, with the formal reſervation of the right of concurrence belonging to the prelates and counts of the empire, as well as to the imperial cities, this deputation ſhould be confined to eight members of the college of electors and college of princes, having regard to the equality of religion; that there ſhould be given to the deputies choſen, unlimited powers to conclude with the French government, *ſalva ratificatione Cæſaris et Imperii*, the arrangement that remains to be made, enjoining them, however, formally to obſerve ſcrupulouſly the reſtrictive clauſes that have already been reſpectively recognized with the baſes of indemnities agreed upon in the negotiations of Raſtadt by the two parties. His majeſty is convinced, with the diet (as has been ſeen by the already mentioned decree of imperial commiſſion of the 26th June), that the mode of co-operation of the empire by means of an extraordinary deputation is more proper to accelerate the affair that remains to be terminated than the concurrence of the empire, in the uſual form of the deliberations of the diet. Guided by the paternal intention of enſuring the internal

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internal tranquillity of Germany, he approves, in consequence, the conclusum transmitted to him, with the reservation of the prerogatives and attributes, in their whole extent, that belong to him, as well as to the imperial plenipotentiaries, to a deputation of that nature, conformably to the laws, primitive institutions, analogy, and right of nations. In what concerns the necessary ulterior dispositions, relative to the extraordinary deputation of the empire, which has been sanctioned, his majesty will communicate his resolutions on that subject.

Letter of the State and Cabinet Minister, his Excellency Count Cobentzel, to Count Stadion, the Imperial Minister at Berlin.

Vienna, October 14, 1801.

YESTERDAY intelligence was received that his royal highness the archduke Anthony was unanimously proclaimed archbishop and elector of the electoral archbishopric of Cologne, by the electoral cathedral chapter of Cologne, in a free, canonical, and electoral assembly.

While your excellency will not fail to make the friendly communication of this event to his Prussian majesty's ministry, your excellency will, at the same time, in the most efficacious manner, repeat those declarations which his majesty the emperor and king caused to be made subsequent to the election of Munster.

Your excellency will assure his Prussian majesty's ministry, that, with respect to the electorate of Cologne, the election of an archduke may be considered as indifferent; as the natural course of the accomplishing of the indemnities by means of secularization will not be altered from personal consideration, or secondary views. Hence then the court of his Prussian majesty may rest perfectly convinced, that while the imperial court, from love and regard to the old constitution of Germany, according to its internal conviction, can never forbear insisting on the maintenance of the three spiritual electorates, the personal consideration of the archduke having been elected to be elector of Cologne, cannot have the smallest influence on this conduct of the high imperial court.

On this occasion, your excellency will also disclose, in confidence, to count Haugwitz, that although the cathedral chapter of Munster earnestly press that his royal highness the archduke Anthony may repair to Munster and take upon himself the government, yet his imperial majesty, as the head of the house, has not yet given to his royal highness permission to this purpose, but has rather intimated to the cathedral chapter, to continue the government in the mean time, in all respects in the same manner as if the see was vacant.—*Sede Impedita.*

His royal highness, beyond all doubt, is in all respects entitled to the formal assumption of the government, and might, without contradiction, put himself in possession of this ecclesiastical electorate, which at this moment has as much right to its existence as other ecclesiastical electorates.

It is also not to be denied, that his imperial majesty, in this moderation, which he has shown, could have no other view, than thereby

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to give a proof that in this reſpect he has been guided by no perſonal intereſt.

Lewis Cobentzel.

Note of Count Haugwitz to Count Stadion.

Berlin, October 26, 1801.

The underſigned ſtate and cabinet miniſter, has informed the king of the communication which count Stadion, miniſter extraordinary and plenipotentiary of his imperial and royal majeſty, was charged to make to him within theſe few days. It was intended to make known to his majeſty, the election of his royal highneſs the archduke Anthony, as biſhop and elector of Cologne, and was accompanied with the declaration, that this election, as well as that of Munſter, was to be conſidered as indifferent, and unconnected with every perſonal or farther view, and that it could not in the leaſt alter either the natural courſe of the ſecularizations, nor the appropriation of the ſame to the indemnifications. That, as on the one ſide the emperor, partly from attachment to the conſtitution of the empire, partly from internal conviction, could not forbear perſiſting in the maintenance of the three eccleſiaſtical electorates, the election which had fallen on the archduke Anthony could by no means, or in any manner, have an influence on the conduct of his imperial majeſty: that in order to give a proof of this, his majeſty has declined the propoſition of the cathedral chapter of Munſter, inviting the archduke to repair to that biſhopric, and to take poſſeſſion of it; and that he had, at the ſame time, given the ſaid chapter to underſtand, that they ſhould undertake the government themſelves in the mean time, in the ſame manner as if the ſee were vacant.

If the elections of Munſter and Ahrenſberg are to be conſidered as mere formalities, the king was obliged on his part to purſue thoſe formalities which the then preſent circumſtance pointed out, to preſerve the general rights; and with this view his majeſty cauſed the well-known proteſtation againſt the Munſter election, to be delivered to the ſtates of the empire, which, by anticipation, alſo concerned the election of Ahrenſberg, in caſe ſuch ſhould take place.

His majeſty does not the leſs approve the wiſe reſolution of his imperial majeſty to poſtpone the further ſteps which one or both of the chapters might wiſh to adopt with reſpect to the introduction of the archduke Anthony; and if the buſineſs on both ſides is thus to remain in uncertainty, the king will, in like manner, abide by the preliminary meaſures which he has hitherto taken.

But even if his majeſty were agreed on the laſt point with the court of Vienna, yet he could not grant his approbation to the principle of the maintenance of the three eccleſiaſtical electorates. This principle is in direct contradiction to thoſe which his majeſty has at all times expreſſed in perfect agreement with the French government as one of the contracting powers, and which are founded on the contracts which are now to be put into execution.

In theſe is to be found the expreſs and eſſential determination, that the loſſes of the parties are to be made up by means of ſecularizations,

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tions, and that in these the losses of the suffering parties must be reckoned.

1. According to the 7th article of the treaty of Luneville, the hereditary princes who have lost their possessions, either in whole or in part, on the left bank of the Rhine.

2. According to the 5th article of the same treaty, the grand duke of Tuscany, and the house of Orange, in which Prussia and France had ensured a suitable indemnity, by a convention concluded much earlier on the 5th of August, 1796, which incontestably makes the rights and pretentions of the house of Orange equal to those of Tuscany. From the obligations contained in those treaties, it follows, that the powers interested, must endeavour to regulate and to liquidate the mass of the real loss, and to bring it into proportion with the objects which are destined to produce an equivalent for the same. As the indemnification for the claimants, pointed out in the above-mentioned treaties, must be complete, so must it be carefully examined beforehand, how far the mass arising, and presenting itself out of the secularizations, is sufficient to indemnify the parties who have sustained losses.

If, after a calculation made, funds sufficient were found to raise or to restore one or more of the ecclesiastical fees, to which the electoral dignity is applicable, the king, far from opposing it, would take measures to support in this the wishes and views of his imperial majesty; but it would be a contradiction in principle at this time, and before the mass of the losses can be weighed against the mass of the objects of indemnification, to decide beforehand, or to prerefolve on the maintenance of the present ecclesiastical electorates.

As the king is accustomed, in all his declarations to the court of Vienna, to be very free, so it is agreeable to him to strengthen anew the principles which he shows in all his transactions, and which he has invariably laid down as the ground of his conduct. His majesty has therefore authorized the undersigned to lay them again before count Stadion in the present note. He fulfils his duty, and repeats to the count the assurance of his high consideration.

(Signed) Haugwitz.

Treaty of Peace between the French Republic and the Emperor of all the Russias.

THE first consul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, animated with the desire of re-establishing the relation of good understanding which subsisted between the two governments before the present war, and to put an end to the evils with which Europe is afflicted, have appointed, for that purpose, for their plenipotentiaries, viz.

The first consul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, citizen Charles Maurice Talleyrand, minister of foreign affairs, and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, the sieur Arcadi count de Markoff, his privy counsellor, and knight of the order of St. Alexander Nevski, and grand cross of that of St. Vladimir of the first class, who, after the verification and exchange of their full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

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Art. I. There shall be, in future, peace, friendship, and good understanding between the French republic and his majesty the emperor of all the Russias.

II. In consequence there shall not be committed any hostility between the two states, reckoning from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty; and neither of the contracting parties shall furnish to the enemies of the other, internal as well as external, any succour or contingent, in men or money, under any denomination whatever.

III. The two contracting parties wishing, as much as is in their power, to contribute to the tranquillity of the respective governments, promise, mutually, not to suffer any of their subjects to keep up any correspondence, direct or indirect, with the internal enemies of the present government of the two states, to propagate in them principles contrary to their respective constitutions, or to foment troubles in them; and as a consequence of this concert, every subject of one of the two powers, who, during his residence in the states of the other, shall make any attack upon its security, shall immediately be removed out of the said country, and carried beyond the frontiers, without being able, in any case, to claim the protection of his government.

IV. It is agreed to adhere, with respect to the re-establishment of the respective legations, and the ceremonies to be followed by the two governments, to that which was in use before the present war.

V. The two contracting parties agree, till a new treaty of commerce be made, to re-establish the commercial relations between the two countries, on the footing in which they were before the war, as far as possible, and with the exception of the modifications which time and circumstances may have produced, and which have given rise to new regulations.

VI. The present treaty is declared to be common to the Batavian republic.

VII. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged in the course of fifty days, or sooner if possible.

In faith of which, we, the undersigned, in virtue of our full powers, have signed and sealed the said treaty.

Done at Paris, the 16th Vendemiaire, year 10 of the French republic (8th October, 1801.)

Ch. M. Talleyrand.

The count de Markoff.

Preliminary Articles of Peace between the French Republic and the Ottoman Porte.

THE first consul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and the sublime Ottoman Porte, wishing to put an end to the war which divides the two states, and to re-establish the connexions by which they were formerly united, have named, with this view, the following plenipotentiaries, viz. the first consul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, the citizen Charles Maurice Talleyrand, minister of foreign affairs, and the sublime Ottoman Porte, its former batch muhassebe, and ambassador Esseyd Aly Effendi, who, after exchanging their full powers, have agreed on the following preliminary articles:

Art.

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Art. I. There ſhall be peace and friendſhip between the French republic and the ſublime Ottoman Porte, in conſequence of which hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe between the two powers, dating from the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent preliminaries; immediately after which exchange, the entire province of Egypt ſhall be evacuated by the French army, and reſtored to the ſublime Ottoman Porte, the territory and poſſeſſions of which ſhall be maintained in their integrity, ſuch as they were before the preſent war. It is underſtood that after the evacuation, the conceſſions which may be made in Egypt to other powers, on the part of the ſublime Porte, ſhall be common to the French.

II. The French republic recogniſes the conſtitution of the republic of the Seven Iſlands, and of the Ex-Venetian territories ſituated on the continent. It guarantees the maintenance of this conſtitution. The ſublime Porte recogniſes and accepts to this effect the guarantee of the French republic, as well as that of Ruſſia.

III. Definitive arrangements ſhall be made between the French republic and the ſublime Ottoman Porte, relative to the goods and effects of their citizens and ſubjects reſpectively, which have been confiſcated or ſequeſtered during the war. The political and commercial agents, and the priſoners of war of every degree, ſhall be ſet at liberty immediately after the ratification of the preſent preliminary articles.

IV. The treaties which exiſted before the preſent war between France and the ſublime Ottoman Porte, are renewed altogether. In conſequence of this renewal, the French republic ſhall enjoy, through all the extent of the ſtates of his highneſs, the rights of commerce and navigation which ſhe formerly enjoyed, as well as thoſe which the moſt favoured nations may enjoy in future.

The ratifications ſhall be exchanged at Paris, within the ſpace of 80 days.

Done at Paris, the 17th Vendemiaire (Oct. 9) tenth year of the French republic, or the firſt of the month Gemaſy-ul-ahir, 1216 of the Hegira.

(Signed) Ch. Mau. Talleyrand.
Eſſeyd Aly Effendi.

Treaty of Peace between the French Republic and the Kingdom of Portugal.

THE firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his royal highneſs the prince regent of the kingdom of Portugal and Algarva, equally animated with the deſire of eſtabliſhing thoſe relations of commerce and amity which ſubſiſted between both ſtates previous to the war, have determined to conclude a treaty of peace, through the mediation of his catholic majeſty, and have appointed, for this purpoſe, the following plenipotentiaries, viz. the firſt conſul has nominated, in the name of the French people, citizen Lucien Bonaparte; and his royal highneſs the prince regent of the kingdom of Portugal and Algarva, his excellency Cypriano Bibiero Freire, commander of the order of Chriſt, one of the council of his royal highneſs, and his miniſter plenipotentiary to his catholic majeſty; which plenipotentiaries, after having exchanged their

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reſpective powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

I. There ſhall be from henceforth peace, friendſhip, and good underſtanding, between the French republic and the kingdom of Portugal. All hoſtilities, both by land and ſea, ſhall ceaſe immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty; that is to ſay, within fifteen days in Europe and the ſeas which bound it, and the coaſt of Africa on this ſide of the equator; within forty days after the aforeſaid ratifications in the territories and ſeas of America and Africa, on the other ſide of the equator; and three months after, in all the territories and ſeas to the weſtward of Cape Horn, and to the eaſt of the Cape of Good Hope. All the prizes made after theſe reſpective periods, in the latitudes mentioned, ſhall be reſpectively reſtored. The priſoners on each ſide ſhall be reſtored, and the ſame political relations re-eſtabliſhed between the two powers as exiſted before the war.

II. All the ports and roads of Portugal in Europe ſhall be immediately ſhut, and continue ſo, until the concluſion of peace between France and England, againſt all Engliſh veſſels, both of war and trade; and the ſaid ports and roads ſhall be open to all the veſſels of war and trade belonging to the French republic and her allies. As to the ports and roads of Portugal in other parts of the world, the preſent article ſhall be obligatory within the periods above fixed for the ceſſation of hoſtilities.

III. Portugal engages not to furniſh, during the courſe of the preſent war, to the enemies of the French republic and her allies, any ſuccours in troops, veſſels, arms, ammunition, proviſion, or money of any kind, or in any manner whatever. All anterior acts, engagements, or conventions, contrary to the preſent article, ſhall be revoked, and regarded as null and void.

IV. The boundaries of French and Portugueſe Guyana, ſhall be determined, in future, by the river Carapanatuba, which flows into the river Amazon, about a third of a degree of north latitude above fort Macapa. Theſe limits ſhall follow the courſe of the river to its ſource, whence they ſhall take a direction to the grand chain of mountains which divide the courſe of the river; they ſhall follow the windings of that chain to the point neareſt to Rio Branco, between the ſecond and third degree north of the equator.

The Indians of the two Guyanas, who, in the courſe of the war, may have been carried off from their habitations, ſhall be reſpectively reſtored.

The citizens or ſubjects of the two powers, who may be compriſed within the new determination of the limits, may reciprocally retire to the poſſeſſion of their reſpective ſtates. They ſhall likewiſe have power to diſpoſe of their property, movable and immovable, for a period of two years, to be computed from the day of exchanging the ratifications of the preſent treaty.

V. A treaty of commerce ſhall be negotiated between the two powers, to eſtabliſh, in a definite manner, the commercial relations between France and Portugal: in the mean time it is agreed upon,

First, That the communications ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed immediately after the exchange of the ratification, and that the agents and factors of commerce ſhall, on each ſide, be reſtored

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restored to the possession of the rights, immunities, and prerogatives, which they enjoyed before the war.

Secondly, That the citizens and subjects of the two powers shall equally and reciprocally enjoy in the states of both, all the rights which those of the most favoured nations enjoy.

Thirdly, That the commodities and merchandize, produced from the soil or manufactures, of each of the two powers, shall be admitted reciprocally without restriction, and without being liable to any duty which would not equally affect the commodities and merchandize of a similar nature imported by other nations.

Fourthly, That the French cloths may be immediately imported into Portugal, on the footing of the most favoured merchandize.

Fifthly, That in other points, all the stipulations inserted in the preceding articles, and not contrary to the present treaty, shall be provisionally executed until the conclusion of a treaty of definitive commerce.

VI. The ratifications of the present treaty shall be exchanged at Madrid,, within the term of twenty days at furthest.

Exchanged by *duplicata*, the 7th Vendemiaire, in the 10th year of the French republic (29th September, 1801.)

(Signed) Lucien Bonaparte.
Cypriano Bibiero Freire.

Treaty of Peace between the First Consul of the French Republic and the King of the Two Sicities.

THE first consul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his majesty the king of the Two Sicilies, equally animated with a desire to put a definitive end to the war which exists between the two states, have nominated for their plenipotentiaries, that is to say, the first consul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, citizen Charles Jean Marie Alquier; and his Sicilian majesty, the sieur Antoine de Micheroux, knight of the royal order Constantinien de St. Georges, and of the imperial Russian order of St. Anne, of the first class, and colonel in the service of his majesty, who, after having exchanged their full powers, have agreed to the following articles:

Art. I. There shall be peace, friendship, and good understanding, between the French republic and his majesty the king of the two Sicilies. All hostilities, by land and sea, shall definitively cease between the two powers, reckoning from the day of the exchange of the ratification of the present treaty; and, previously, the armistice concluded at Foligno, on the 18th of February last, between the respective generals, shall receive its full and complete execution.

II. All acts, engagements, or anterior conventions, on the one part or the other of the two contracting powers, which may be contrary to the present treaty, are revoked, and shall be considered as null and void.

III. All the ports of the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily shall be shut to all ships of war and merchantmen, Turkish and English, until the conclusion, as well of a definitive peace, between the French republic and these two powers, as of the differences which have arisen between England and the pow-

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ers of the north of Europe, and particularly between Ruſſia and England.

The ſaid ports ſhall remain, on the contrary, open to all the ſhips of war and merchantmen, as well of his imperial majeſty of Ruſſia, and of the ſtates compriſed in the maritime neutrality of the North, as of the French republic and its allies. And if, in conſequence of this determination, his majeſty the king of the Two Sicilies ſhould find himſelf expoſed to the attacks of the Turks or the Engliſh, the French republic binds itſelf to place, at the diſpoſal of his majeſty, and upon his demand, to be employed in his ſtates, a number of troops equal to that which ſhall be ſent to him as an auxiliary force by his imperial majeſty of Ruſſia.

IV. His majeſty the king of the Two Sicilies, renounces, in perpetuity, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, in the firſt place, Porto Longone, in the iſle of Elba, and every thing belonging to it in that iſland. Secondly, the ſtates of the Preſides in Tuſcany; and he cedes them, as alſo the principality of Piombino, to the French government, to be by it diſpoſed of at its pleaſure.

V. The French republic and his majeſty the king of the Two Sicilies, bind themſelves reciprocally to take off the ſequeſtration from all effects, revenues, and property, ſeized confiſcated, or detained from the citizens and ſubjects of the one or the other power, in conſequence of the preſent war, and to admit them reſpectively to the legal exerciſe of the rights and claims which may appertain to them.

VI. In order to remove every trace of the private calamities which have marked the preſent war, and to give peace, re-eſtabliſh the ſtability which can only be expected from a general oblivion of the paſt, the French republic renounces all perſecution in reſpect of facts of which it might complain; and the king, wiſhing, on his part, to contribute, as much as in him lies, to repair the evils occaſioned by the troubles which have taken place in his ſtates, binds himſelf to pay, within three months, reckoning from the day of the exchange of the preſent treaty, a ſum of 500,000 franks, which ſhall be diſtributed among the agents and French citizens who have been particularly the victims of the diſorders which have been produced at Naples, Viterbo, and in the other points of the ſouth of Italy, by the conduct of Neapolitans.

VII. His Sicilian majeſty binds himſelf alſo to permit that all thoſe of his ſubjects who have not been proſecuted, baniſhed, or forced to expatriate themſelves voluntarily, but for acts relating to the reſidence of the French in the kingdom of Naples, ſhall return, without moleſtation, to their country, and be reinſtated in their properties. His majeſty alſo promiſes, that all perſons now in cuſtody, on account of political opinions which they have declared, ſhall be immediately ſet at liberty.

VIII. His majeſty the king of the Two Sicilies, binds himſelf to reſtore to the French republic the ſtatues, pictures, and other objects of the arts, which have been carried off from Rome by the Neapolitan troops.

IX. The preſent treaty is declared common to the Batavian, Ciſalpine, and Ligurian republics.

X. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged

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changed in the ſpace of thirty days without delay.

Done and ſigned at Florence, the 7th Germinal, 9th year of the French republic, (28th March, 1801.)

(Signed) Alquier.
Antoine de Micheroux.

Treaty of Peace between the French Republic and the Elector Palatine of Bavaria.

THE firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his moſt ſerene highneſs the elector palatine of Bavaria, having at heart to eſtabliſh, in a ſolemn and inconteſtable manner, the old relations of friendſhip and good neighbourhood which have ſubſiſted between France and the moſt ſerene Bavaro-palatine houſe before the war, which has been terminated between the French republic and the Germanic empire, by the treaty of peace of Luneville, and in which his electoral highneſs had taken part, not only by means of the ſuccours furniſhed by virtue of the decrees of the diet, but alſo in his quality of auxiliary of the allied powers; the contracting parties have agreed to confirm the perfect return of a good harmony between them, by a treaty of and ſeparate peace; and for that purpoſe have appointed for their plenipotentiaries, that is to ſay, the firſt conſul, in the name of the French people, citizen Caillard, keeper of the archives of the adminiſtration for foreign affairs; and his moſt ſerene electoral highneſs the elector of Bavaria, the ſieur Antonine de Cetto, his preſent counſellor of ſtate and miniſter plenipotentiary to the electoral circle and to that of the Upper Rhine, who, after having exchanged their reſpective full powers, have agreed to the following articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be peace, friendſhip, and good neighbourhood, between the French republic and the palatine elector of Bavaria. The one and the other ſhall neglect nothing to maintain this union, and to render reciprocally ſuch ſervices as may be beſt calculated to draw more and more cloſe the bonds of ſincere and durable friendſhip.

II. His majeſty the emperor and the empire, having conſented, by the 4th article of the treaty concluded at Luneville, the 20th Pluvioſe, year 9 of the republic, or the 9th of February, 1801, that the French republic ſhall poſſeſs in future, in entire ſovereignty and property, the countries and domains on the left bank of the Rhine, and which made part of the Germanic empire, his electoral highneſs the palatine of Bavaria renounces for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, the rights of territorial ſuperiority, ownerſhip, and every other whatever, which his houſe has hitherto exerciſed, and which belonged to him over the countries and dominions upon the left bank of the Rhine. This renunciation relates, namely, to the dutchy of Juliers, the dutchy of Deux-Ponts, with its dependencies, and all the bailliwic of the palatinate of the Rhine, ſituate upon the left bank of that river.

III. Convinced that it is her intereſt to prevent the Bavaro-palatine poſſeſſions from being reduced to a ſtate of weakneſs, and conſequently to repair the diminution of force and territory, which reſults from the above renunciation, the French republic engages to maintain and efficaciouſly defend the integrity of the aforeſaid

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aforesaid possessions upon the right bank of the Rhine, together and in the extent which they have, or ought to have, according to the treaty and the conventions concluded at Teschen, the 13th May, 1799; saving the cessions which may take place with the full will of his electoral highness, and the consent of all the interested parties.

The French republic promises, at the same time, that it shall use all its influence and all its means, in order that the 7th article of the treaty of peace, of Luneville, by virtue of which the empire is bound to give to the hereditary princes dispossessed upon the left bank of the Rhine an indemnification, to be taken in its bosom, should be particularly executed with respect to the electoral palatine house of Bavaria; so as that that house shall receive a territorial indemnity, situated as well as possible for its convenience, and equivalent to the losses of every kind, which have been the consequence of the present war.

IV. The contracting parties shall come to an understanding between themselves at all times, as good neighbours, and follow, on the one part and the other, the principles of perfect equity in regulating the disputes which may have taken or may take place, whether with respect to the course of the Thalweg between the respective states, which, by the terms of the 6th article of the treaty of peace of Luneville, shall hereafter be the limit of the territory of the French republic and of the Germanic empire, or with respect to the navigation of the Rhine and commerce, or with respect to the works to be erected upon the one side or the other of the river.

V. The 8th article of the treaty of peace of Luneville, concerning the debts secured upon the soil of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine, shall serve as a basis for those who find themselves aggrieved in consequence of their possessions and territories being comprised in the renunciation of the 2d article of the present treaty.

As the said treaty of Luneville does not acknowledge as chargeable to the French republic any debts but those resulting from loans, agreed to by the states of the ceded countries, or from expenses incurred by the effective administration of the said countries; and as on the other side the dutchy of Deux-Ponts, as well as the part of the palatinate of the Rhine, ceded by the second article of the present treaty, are not countries of the states; it is agreed that the debts of the said countries, which, at their origin, have been registered by the superior administrative bodies, shall be assimilated to those which have been agreed to by the states in the countries where they have been contracted.

Immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, there shall be appointed, upon the one part and upon the other, commissioners, who shall proceed to the verification and distribution of the debts above mentioned.

VI. The private debts contracted by the communes and the ci-devant bailiwics, under the authority of government, remain at their charge, and shall be paid by them.

VII. All papers, documents, and acts, relative to public and private properties of the countries ceded by the said 2d article, shall, within the space of three months, to be dated from the exchange of the ratifications, be delivered faithfully to a commissioner, appointed by the French

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French government to receive them. The ſame ſhall be done with reſpect to all the papers, documents, and acts, concerning the objects of adminiſtration, which relate excluſively to the ſaid countries. As to thoſe ſaid papers, documents, and acts, which concern the common intereſt of the ſtates of the palatine houſe, as well thoſe ceded upon the left bank of the Rhine, as thoſe which it retains upon the right bank, there ſhall be made, at the common expenſe, collated copies, which ſhall be ſent to the French commiſſioner.

VIII. From the day of the exchange of the ratifications all the ſequeſtrations that have been laid, on account of the war, upon the goods, revenues, and effects of French citizens within the ſtates of his moſt ſerene electoral highneſs, and thoſe which may have been placed within the territory of the French republic, upon goods, revenues, and effects of ſubjects or ſervants of his ſaid moſt ſerene highneſs, domiciliated upon the right bank of the Rhine, and proprietors upon the left, are taken off. There is no exception made of the Bavaro-palatine ſubjects or ſervants, who, after the entrance of the French armies, withdrew from the left to the right bank of the Rhine.

IX. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified by the contracting parties within the ſpace of twenty days, or ſooner if poſſible; and his moſt ſerene highneſs the elector palatine of Bavaria engages to procure, within the ſame ſpace of time, an act of acceſſion upon the part of his moſt ſerene highneſs William duke of Bavaria, to the ceſſions made by the ſaid treaty.

Done at Paris, the 6th Fructidor, year 9 of the French republic (24th Auguſt, 1801).

(Signed) Antoine Bernard Caillard,
Antoine de Cetto.

By the firſt conſul,
The ſecretary of ſtate,
(Signed) H. B. Maret.

Approved,
The firſt conſul,
(Signed) Bonaparte.

By the firſt conſul,
The ſecretary of ſtate,
(Signed) H. B. Maret.

A true copy,
The ſecretary-general of the council of ſtate,
(Signed) J. G. Locré.

Treaty between the French Republic and Spain, ſigned at Madrid, March 21, 1801, by the Prince of Peace and Citizen Lucien Bonaparte.

THE firſt conſul of the French republic, and his catholic majeſty, willing to eſtabliſh, on the moſt ſecure footing, the ſtates which the ſon of the infant of Parma is to receive as an equivalent for the dutchy of Parma, have agreed upon the following articles; and have named as their plenipotentiaries as follows: the firſt conſul names citizen Lucien Bonaparte, the preſent ambaſſador of the French republic; and his catholic majeſty the prince of Peace. Theſe have concluded the following articles:

Art. I. The reigning duke of Parma renounces for ever, for himſelf and his heirs, the dutchy of Parma, with all its dependencies, in favour of the French republic, and his catholic majeſty ſhall guaranty this renunciation. The grand dutchy of Tuſcany, which the grand duke in the ſame manner renounces equally, and

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and the ceſſion of which is guaranti-ed by the emperor of Germany, ſhall be given to the ſon of the duke of Parma, as an indemnification for the countries ceded by the infant his father, and in conſequence of an-other treaty concluded anteriorly be-tween his catholic majeſty and the French republic.

II. The prince of Parma will go to Florence, where he will be ac-knowledged ſovereign of all the poſ-ſeſſions which belong to the grand dutchy, and receive from the conſti-tuted authorities the keys of the forts, and the oath of fidelity will be taken to him as ſovereign. The firſt con-ſul will exert his authority, in order that theſe acts may be peaceably ex-ecuted.

III. The prince of Parma will be acknowledged king, with all the honour due to his rank. The firſt conſul ſhall acknowledge him, and ſhall cauſe him to be ſo conſidered by the other powers of Europe. The meaſures neceſſary for this pur-poſe ſhall be taken before the prince takes poſſeſſion.

IV. The part of the iſle of Elba which belongs to Tuſcany, and de-pends upon that ſtate, ſhall remain to the French republic; and the firſt conſul ſhall give as an indemnity to the king of Tuſcany the country of Piombino, which belongs to the king of Naples.

V. As this treaty originates from that which has been concluded be-tween the firſt conſul and his ca-tholic majeſty, and by which the king cedes to France the poſſeſſion of Louiſiana, the contracting par-ties agree to put in execution the ar-ticles of the former treaty, and to uſe their reſpective rights till the ſet-tlement of thoſe differences mention-ed in it.

VI. As the new family to be eſta-bliſhed in Tuſcany is of the family of Spain, theſe eſtates ſhall remain for ever united to Spain, and an in-fant of that family ſhall be called to that throne, in caſe the preſent king or his children have no poſterity; in this caſe, the ſons of the reigning fa-mily of Spain ſhall ſucceed to theſe eſtates.

VII. The firſt conſul and his ca-tholic majeſty agree to procure for the reigning duke of Parma, in con-ſideration of this renunciation in fa-vour of his ſon, proportionable in-demnities, whether in poſſeſſions or revenues.

VIII. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified and exchanged in the courſe of three weeks.

(Signed) Lucien Bonaparte;
The prince of Peace.

Treaty of Peace between the French Republic and the Regency of Algiers, concluded on the 17th December, 1801.

THE French government and the regency of Algiers are ſenſible that war is not natural between the two ſtates, and that it imports the dignity, as well as the intereſts of both parties, to reſume their former relations.

Accordingly Muſtapha Pacha Dey, in the name of the regency, and citizen Charles François Dubois Thainville, chargé d'affaires, and commiſſary general of commercial relations from the French republic, furniſhed with full powers from the firſt conſul to negociate a peace with the regency, have agreed upon the following articles:

Art. I. The political and com-mercial relations are re-eſtabliſhed between

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between the two ſtates, on the ſame footing as before the rupture.

II. The former treaties, conventions, and ſtipulations, ſhall be immediately confirmed by the ſignature of the dey and that of the agent of the republic.

III. The regency of Algiers reſtores to the French republic its privileges in Africa, in the ſame manner and on the ſame conditions as France enjoyed before the rupture.

IV. The money, effects, and articles of merchandize, ſeized by the agents of the regency in the factories, ſhall be reſtored, after deducting the ſums applied to the diſcharge of the debts due at the period of the declaration of war (viz. Dec. 21, 1799). There ſhall therefore be drawn out, on both ſides, a ſtate of accounts, which ſhall be mutually admitted.

V. The trade duties ſhall be demandable from the day only on which the French ſhall have been re-eſtabliſhed in their factories.

VI. And counting from that epoch, the dey, in order to indemnify the African company for the loſſes they have ſuſtained, grants them a general exemption from thoſe dues for one year.

VII. Frenchmen cannot be detained as ſlaves in the kingdom of Algiers in any caſe, or under any pretext whatſoever.

VIII. Frenchmen taken under the flag of a power at war with the regency cannot be made ſlaves, even when the veſſels on board of which they may be found ſhall have defended themſelves, unleſs, forming a part of the crew as ſoldiers or ſailors, they ſhall have been taken in arms.

IX. Frenchmen occaſionally or conſtantly reſiding in the kingdom of Algiers, are ſubject in every reſpect to the authority of the agent of the French government. The regency ſhall not attempt, and its delegates have no right, to interfere in the internal adminiſtration of the French diſtrict in Africa.

X. The captains of French veſſels, whether belonging to the ſtate or private perſons, cannot be compelled to take on board any thing contrary to their inclination, nor be ſent to any port whither they are not diſpoſed to go.

XI. The agent of the French government is not reſponſible for any debts contracted by private individuals of his nation, unleſs he has engaged in writing to pay them.

XII. When any difference occurs between a Frenchman and a ſubject of Algiers, it ſhall be decided upon by the firſt authorities only, after the French commiſſary has been ſummoned to attend.

XIII. His excellency the dey engages to cauſe reimburſement to be made of all the ſums of money which may be owing to Frenchmen by his ſubjects; and citizen Dubois Thainville, in like manner, engages, in the name of his government, to effect payment of all thoſe to which the ſubjects of Algiers are juſtly entitled.

XIV. The effects of every Frenchman dying in the kingdom of Algiers, are at the diſpoſal of the commiſſary-general of the repuplic.

XV. The chargé d'affaires and the agents of the African company chooſe their own interpreters and brokers.

XVI. The chargé d'affaires and the commiſſary-general of commercial relations from the French republic, ſhall continue to enjoy all the honours, rights, immunities, and prerogatives, ſtipulated in the former treaties. They ſhall preſerve their

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pre-eminence over the agents of other nations.

XVII. The asylum of the French commissary is sacred; no public force can enter it, unless upon his own application to that effect to the chief of the Algerine government.

XVIII. In case of a rupture, which may God ever prevent, the French shall be allowed three months for the adjustment of their affairs. During this period they shall enjoy the same extent of liberty and protection which is secured to them by treaty in a time of profound peace. It is understood that vessels touching at the ports of the kingdom during those three months, shall participate in the same advantages.

XIX. His excellency the dey appoints Salah Khodjx to proceed to Paris in character of his ambassador.

(Signed) Mustapha, dey of Algiers.
Dubois Thainville, chargé d'affaires and commissary-general of commercial relations from the French republic.

Convention between the French Government and the Pope, Pius VII.—Ratified the 23d Fructidor, Year 9, (10th September, 1801).

THE chief consul of the French republic, and his holiness the sovereign pontiff, Pius VII. have named as their respective plenipotentiaries,

The chief consul, the citizens Joseph Bonaparte, counsellor of state; Cretet, counsellor of state; and Bernier, doctor of divinity, curate of St. Laud d'Angers; furnished with full powers:

His holiness, his eminence monseigneur Hércule Consalvi, cardinal of the holy Roman church, deacon of St. Agathe *ad Suburram*, his secretary of state; Joseph Spina, archbishop of Corinth, domestic prelate to his holiness, attendant on the pontifical throne; and father Caselli, his holiness's adviser on points of theology; in like manner furnished with full powers in due form:

Who, after exchanging their full powers, have concluded the following convention:

Convention between the French Government and his Holiness the Pope, Pius VII.

The government of the republic acknowledges that the catholic, apostolical, and Roman religion, is the religion of the great majority of French citizens.

His holiness, in like manner, acknowledges that this same religion has derived, and is likely to derive, the greatest benefit and the greatest splendour from the establishment of the catholic worship in France, and from its being openly professed by the consuls of the republic.

This mutual acknowledgment being made, in consequence, as well for the good of religion, as for the maintenance of interior tranquillity, they have agreed as follows:

Art. I. The catholic, apostolical, and Roman religion shall be freely exercised in France. Its service shall be publicly performed, conformably to the regulations of police, which the government shall judge necessary for the public tranquillity.

II. There shall be made by the holy see, in concert with the government, a new division of French dioceses.

III. His

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III. His holineſs ſhall declare to the titular French biſhops that he expects from them, with the firmeſt confidence, every ſacrifice for the ſake of peace and unity—even that of their ſees.

After this exhortation, if they ſhould refuſe the ſacrifice commanded for the good of the church (a refuſal, nevertheleſs, which his holineſs by no means expects), the ſees of the new diviſion ſhall be governed by biſhops appointed as follows:

IV. The chief conſul ſhall preſent, within three months after the publication of his holineſs's bull, to the archbiſhoprics and biſhoprics of the new diviſion. His holineſs ſhall confer canonical inſtitution, according to the forms eſtabliſhed in France before the revolution *(avant le changement de gouvernement)*.

V. The nomination to the biſhoprics which become vacant in future, ſhall likewiſe belong to the chief conſul, and canonical inſtitution ſhall be adminiſtered by the holy ſee, conformably to the preceding article.

VI. The biſhops, before entering upon their functions, ſhall take, before the chief conſul, the oath of fidelity which was in uſe before the revolution, expreſſed in the following words:

"I ſwear and promiſe to God, upon the holy Evangeliſts, to preſerve obedience and fidelity to the government eſtabliſhed by the conſtitution of the French republic. I likewiſe promiſe to carry on no correſpondence, to be preſent at no converſation, to form no connexion, whether within the territories of the republic or without, which may, in any degree, diſturb the public tranquillity: and if, in my dioceſe or elſewhere, I diſcover that any thing is going forward to the prejudice of the ſtate, I will immediately communicate to government all the information I poſſeſs."

VII. Eccleſiaſtics of the ſecond order ſhall take the ſame oath before the civil authorities appointed by the government.

VIII. The following formula of prayer ſhall be recited at the end of divine ſervice in all the catholic churches of France:

Domine, ſalvam fac rempublicam,
Domine, ſalvos fac conſules.

IX. The biſhops ſhall make a new diviſion of the pariſhes in their dioceſes, which, however, ſhall not take effect till after it is ratified by government.

X. The biſhops ſhall have the appointment of the pariſh prieſts.

Their choice ſhall not fall but on perſons approved of by government.

XI. The biſhops may have a chapter in their cathedral, and a ſeminary for the dioceſe, without the government being obliged to endow them.

XII. All the metropolitan, cathedral, parochial, and other churches; which have not been alienated, neceſſary to public worſhip, ſhall be placed at the diſpoſal of the biſhops.

XIII. His holineſs, for the ſake of peace and the happy re-eſtabliſhment of the catholic religion, declares, that neither he nor his ſucceſſors will diſturb in any manner thoſe who have acquired the alienated property of the church; and that in conſequence that property, and every part of it, ſhall belong for ever to them, their heirs and aſſigns.

XIV. The government ſhall grant a ſuitable ſalary to biſhops and pariſh prieſts, whoſe dioceſes and pariſhes are compriſed in the new diviſion.

XV. The government ſhall likewiſe take meaſures to enable French catholics,

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catholics, who are so inclined, to dispose of their property for the support of religion.

XVI. His holiness recognises in the chief consul of the French republic the same rights and prerogatives in religious matters which the ancient government enjoyed.

XVII. It is agreed between the contracting parties, that in case any of the successors of the present chief consul should not be a Roman catholic, the rights and prerogatives mentioned in the foregoing article, as well as the nomination to the bishops' sees, shall be regulated, with regard to him, by a new convention.

The ratification shall be exchanged at Paris in the space of forty days.

Done at Paris, the 26th Messidor, year 9 of the French republic.

(Signed) Joseph Bonaparte.
Hercules, cardinalis Consalvi.
Joseph, archiep. Corinthi.
Bernier.
F. Carolus Caselli.

Regulations of the Gallican Church.

Of the Regulations of the Catholic Church, as connected with the Policy of the State.

Art. I. No bull, rescript, decree, provision, or any thing in the place of a provision, or, in short, any other dispatch from the court of Rome, even though it should relate to individuals only, shall be received, published, printed, or otherways put in force, without the authority of the government.

II. No individual, assuming the character of nuncio, legate, vicar, or apostolic commissary, or whatever other appellation he may assume, shall be allowed to exercise his functions in France, but with the consent of the government, and in a manner conformable to the liberties of the Gallican church.

III. The decrees of foreign synods, or even of general councils, shall not be published in France before the government shall have examined their form, their conformity to the laws, rights, and privileges of the French republic, and whatever might in their publication have a tendency to alter or to affect public tranquillity.

IV. No national or metropolitan council, no diocesan synod, no deliberative assembly, shall be allowed to be held without the express permission of government.

V. All ecclesiastical functions shall be gratuitous, with the exception of those oblations which shall be authorized, and fixed by particular regulations.

VI. Recourse shall be had to the council of state in every instance of abuse, on the part of superiors, and other ecclesiastical persons. The instances of abuse are usurpation, or excess of power; contravention of the laws and institutions of the republic; infraction of the rules consecrated by the canons received in France; any attack upon the liberties, franchises, and customs of the Gallican church; and any attempt which, in the exercise of worship, can compromise the honour of citizens, arbitrarily trouble their conscience, or lead to oppression, injury, or public scandal.

VII. There shall also be a right of appeal to the council of state, on the ground of any attempt being made to interrupt the exercise of public worship, and to infringe on that liberty which the general laws

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laws of the republic, as well as particular regulations, guaranty to its miniſters.

VIII. An appeal ſhall be competent to any perſon intereſted; and in caſe no complaint is exhibited by individuals, the buſineſs ſhall be taken up officially by the prefects. The public functionary, eccleſiaſtic or individual, who ſhall wiſh to exerciſe this right of appeal, muſt addreſs a ſigned memorial, containing a detail of the grievance complained of, to the counſellor of ſtate, preſiding over religious affairs, whoſe duty it will then become to make, with the leaſt poſſible delay, every inquiry into the ſubject; and upon his report, the affair ſhall be definitively ſettled or ſent back, according to the urgency of the caſe, to the competent authorities.*

Articles relative to the Proteſtant Religion.

General Diſpoſitions applicable to all Proteſtant Communions.

Art. I. No individual ſhall officiate as a miniſter of religion who is not by birth a Frenchman.

II. Neither the proteſtant churches nor their miniſters ſhall have any connexion with a foreign power or authority.

III. The paſtors and miniſters of the different proteſtant communions ſhall pray for the proſperity of the French republic, and the ſafety of the conſuls.

IV. No doctrinal deciſion or formulary, under the title of a confeſſion, or under any other title, ſhall be publiſhed or become a ſubject of inſtruction, before its publication has been authorized by the government.

V. No change ſhall take place in the forms of their diſcipline without the ſame authority.

VI. The council of ſtate ſhall take cognizance of all the plans formed by their miniſters, and of all the diſſenſions which may ariſe among them.

VII. It ſhall be underſtood, that to the ſupport of paſtors of conſiſtorial churches, the property of theſe churches ſhall be applied, as well as the oblations eſtabliſhed by uſage and by poſitive regulations.

VIII. The regulations applied to the ſpecific articles of the catholic worſhip reſpecting the liberty of endowments, and the nature of the property which can be the object of them, ſhall be common to the proteſtant churches.

IX. There ſhall be two academies or ſeminaries in the eaſt of France, for the inſtruction of the miniſters of the confeſſion of Augſburg.

X. There ſhall be a ſeminary at Geneva, for the inſtruction of the miniſters of the reformed churches.

XI. The profeſſors in all the academies or ſeminaries ſhall be nominated by the chief conſul.

XII. No perſon ſhall be elected a miniſter or paſtor of any church of the confeſſion of Augſburg, who has not ſtudied during a fixed period in one of the French ſeminaries appointed for miniſters of this perſuaſion, and who ſhall not produce a certificate in due form of his capacity and regular conduct, during the continuance of his ſtudies.

XIII. No perſon is to be elected a miniſter or paſtor of the reformed

* The remaining regulations under this head are merely of local and particular detail.

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church, without having ſtudied in the ſeminary of Geneva, and without producing a certificate of the deſcriptions pointed out in the preceding article.

XIV. The regulations reſpecting the adminiſtration and internal police of theſe ſeminaries, the number and the qualifications of the profeſſors, the mode of inſtruction, the ſubjects which are taught, together with the form of the certificates of application, good conduct, and capacity, are to be approved of by the government.

Of the Organization of the Churches of the Confeſſion of Augſburg.

Section I.—*General Regulations.*

XXXIII. The churches of the confeſſion of Augſburg ſhall have paſtors, local conſiſtories, inſpections, and general conſiſtories.

Section II.—*Of the Miniſters, Paſtors, and local Conſiſtories of each Church.*

XXXIV. With reſpect to paſtors, the regulation of the conſiſtorial churches, which was preſcribed by the 2d Section of the preceding title as applicable to the reformed paſtors and churches, is to be obſerved.

Section III.—*Of Inſpections.*

XXXV. The churches of the confeſſion of Augſburg ſhall be ſubject to inſpections.

XXXVI. Five conſiſtorial churches ſhall form the bounds of an inſpection.

XXXVII. Each inſpection ſhall be compoſed of a miniſter and an elder from each church of the diſtrict. It ſhall not aſſemble without the permiſſion of the government. At its firſt meeting, the oldeſt of the miniſters of the diſtrict ſhall preſide. Each inſpection ſhall chooſe two laymen and one clergyman, who ſhall take the title of inſpector, and whoſe duty it ſhall be to watch over the conduct of the miniſters, and to preſerve good order in the different churches: the choice of the inſpector and the two laymen ſhall be confirmed by the firſt conſul.

XXXVIII. The inſpection ſhall not aſſemble, without the authority of government, in preſence of the prefect or ſub-prefect, or without having given previous intelligence to the counſellor of ſtate, whoſe buſineſs it is to watch over religious affairs, of the ſubjects that are to come under diſcuſſion.

XXXIX. The inſpector ſhall viſit the churches of his diſtrict, and he may adopt the aſſiſtance of the two laymen named with him, as often as circumſtances ſhall appear to require. He ſhall be charged with the convocation of the general aſſembly of inſpection, no decree of which, however, ſhall be put in force till it has received the approbation of the government.

Section IV.—*Of General Conſiſtories.*

XL. There ſhall be three general conſiſtories: one at Straſburgh for the proteſtants of the confeſſion of Augſburg, belonging to the departments of the upper and lower Rhine; the ſecond at Mentz, for thoſe of the departments of Laſſare and Mont Tonnerre; and the third at Cologne, for thoſe of the department of the Rhine and Moſelle, and la Roer.

XLI. Each conſiſtory ſhall be formed of one lay preſident, of two eccleſiaſtical inſpectors, and a deputy from each inſpection: the preſident

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fident and the two eccleſiaſtical inſpectors ſhall be nominated by the chief conſul. The preſident ſhall take the ſame oath before the chief conſul, or a public functionary delegated for that purpoſe, which is impoſed upon the miniſters of the catholic religion: the two eccleſiaſtical inſpectors and the lay members, ſhall have the ſame oath adminiſtered to them by the preſident.

XLII. The general conſiſtory ſhall not be permitted to aſſemble without the conſent of the government, and unleſs in preſence of the preſect or ſub-preſect, and after a notification of the ſubjects in diſcuſſion, as deſcribed in former articles.

XLIII. During the interval between the different meetings, there ſhall be a directory, compoſed of the preſident, of the oldeſt of the two eccleſiaſtical inſpectors, and of three laymen, one of whom ſhall be nominated by the chief conſul: the two others ſhall be choſen by the general conſiſtory.

XLIV. The privileges of the general conſiſtory and the directory, ſhall continue to be directed by the cuſtoms and regulations of the churches of the confeſſion of Augſburg, in all points which have not been formally fixed by the laws of the republic, or the preſent articles.

Approved. The firſt conſul,
(Signed) Bonaparte.

By order of the firſt conſul,
The ſecretary of ſtate,
(Signed) H. B. Maret.

Circular Letter, addreſſed by Monſignore Erſkine to the French Biſhops reſiding in England.

Illuſtrious and rev. lord,

IN obedience to the expreſs order which I have received from our moſt holy father, pope Pius VII. I ſend you, my lord, the pontifical brief, which you will find annexed hereto. I pray you to inform me of the receipt of it without any delay, and alſo to ſend me, without delay, the anſwer which ſhall ſeem fit.

His holineſs has not neglected to employ all poſſible means to preſerve you in poſſeſſion of your ſee; but he has ſuffered the moſt lively regret in finding that the urgency of circumſtances renders the reſignation of the biſhops indiſpenſable; it is neceſſary for the unity, the peace, and the re-eſtabliſhment of the catholic religion in France.

His holineſs charges me, beſides, to aſſure you, my lord, that he has, in the beſt manner that he could, recommended your perſon to the firſt conſul, with the deſign either of directing his view towards you in the nomination to the ſees of the new conſcription, or at leaſt to provide for your ſubſiſtence; and ſuch, my lord, is the deſire of the holy father to contribute to your comfort, in the beſt manner poſſible, that he will not neglect any one favourable occaſion of lightening the burden which preſſes on you, and of providing for your perſonal wants.

Having thus fulfilled the orders given me by the ſovereign pontiff, it remains to me to offer you for myſelf all the ſervices that can depend on me, to aſſure you that

I am, my lord, &c.
Charles Erſkine.

London,
42, Great Marybone-ſtreet,
Sept. 16, 1801.

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The Pope's Brief.

Pius VII. to his venerable Brethren the Archbiſhops and Biſhops of France, having the Communion and Favour of the Apoſtolic Chair.

Venerable fathers,

Health and apoſtolic benediction!

So many and ſo ſignal are the ſervices which, both as a general body, and as individuals of the catholic faith, you have performed, that on this account you have ever merited from us and from our predeceſſor Pius VI. now happily at reſt, the higheſt commendations and the higheſt praiſe of your virtue.

But although what you have done for the church, and for the advantage of the faithful, be very great, and highly glorious to you, yet the ſtate of the times forces us to notify to you, that you have not yet fulfilled that meritorious career of glory for which the counſels of divine Providence have reſerved your courage in theſe times. Greater ſacrifices, O venerable fathers, ſtill remain to be added to thoſe by which you have diſtinguiſhed yourſelves, and you have ſtill to add higher claims to thoſe which you now have to the gratitude of the holy church.—The preſervation of the unity of the holy church, the re-eſtabliſhment of the catholic religion in France, demand a new example of virtue and of greatneſs of ſoul in you, which may teach all nations, that the holy zeal with which you burn for the church has for its object its advantage, and not your own.—Your eccleſiaſtical ſeats are voluntarily to be reſigned, and the ſame muſt be given up freely into our hands. It is requiring much of you, venerable brethren; it is, however, equally neceſſary, both that we ſhould make this demand, and that you ſhould comply with it, in order to re-eſtabliſh order in France in the affairs of the church. We feel, indeed, how much it muſt coſt your hearts to abandon thoſe flocks which are ſo dear to you, to the ſafety of which you have given ſo much attention, and which, even in your abſence, have been the object of your moſt tender ſolicitude. But the more bitter the ſacrifice, the more agreeable will it be to God; the reward which you will have to expect from it will be proportioned to your grief and to his benevolence. With the whole energy of our ſoul, do we call upon your virtue; we call upon you by the bleſſed name of Jeſus, to complete this ſacrifice for the preſervation of unity.

A knowledge of the diſtinguiſhed piety, and of the remarkable virtue which we have ever remarked in you in the moſt trying circumſtances of the church, makes us certain that you will immediately forward to us your voluntary letters of abdication. We cannot entertain a doubt that any of the wiſe and virtuous paſtors of the French church can for a moment heſitate to comply with our paternal advice, and to follow the illuſtrious example of Gregory Nazianzen, when he reſigned the biſhopric of Conſtantinople. And certainly, in the ſituation in which we ſtand, what reaſon can we have to ſuſpect that any of you would reſiſt our counſels and our entreaties, if he recollects what the church in general has reſolved, and what St. Auguſtine has ſaid—*Contra Creſcentium*, lib. 2. c. xi.—" We are not biſhops for our own ſakes, but for the ſakes of thoſe to whom we adminiſter the ſacrament of the Lord; and for theſe, as neceſſity ſhall require, we are either

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ther to be or not to be, as it is not for ourſelves, but for them that we govern."

For you know, venerable brethren, that many of the moſt diſtinguiſhed prelates of the church, that they might conform to this principle of the church and preſerve unity, have voluntarily abdicated their ſeats; and almoſt three hundred catholic biſhops, a little before the celebrated collation of Carthage, openly profeſſed themſelves to be ready, and thought themſelves bound, to abdicate their biſhoprics, if it ſhould be conceived that their abdication would tend to remove the ſchiſm of the Donatiſts. Many of you, indeed, venerable brethren, had before your eyes theſe examples, and adopted ſimilar ſentiments, when, in conſequence of the letter of the 3d of May, 1791, of the late Pius VI. of happy memory, our predeceſſor, you profeſſed yourſelves willing and ready to reſign your charges, if the good of religion ſhould require it, for which that moſt wiſe pontiff beſtowed on them the greateſt praiſe. Nor were there wanting ſome of you lately who ſignified to us in your letters, that you would cheerfully do the ſame, if it ſhould ſeem neceſſary for the preſervation of religion in France. Now ſince we have arrived at thoſe times, in which the voluntary abdication of your charges is abſolutely neceſſary for the good of the catholic religion, we cannot doubt that you will yield this obedience to God by making this new ſacrifice, to offer which to him you know yourſelves bound, and have already ſo laudably profeſſed yourſelves ready, ſhould the good of the church require.

Confidently truſting, therefore, in conſequence of the opinion which we have always entertained of your religion and virtue, that on peruſing our letter, both to increaſe your merits to the church, and to preſerve the unity of it to France, you will, without delay, implicitly comply with our exhortation, we firſt congratulate you on account of that immortal glory which you will obtain from this ſplendid teſtimony of virtue, religion, and obedience, which you are now about to give to the whole church. This glory, indeed, will be ſo great as to be far ſuperior to the praiſes you have already obtained, by undergoing ſo many dangers and enduring ſo many calamities with ſo much conſtancy, for preſerving religion in the churches intruſted to your fidelity.—For, according to what the ſame St. Auguſtine writes, in his letter to Caſtorius, "It is far more glorious to have laid down the burden of epiſcopacy, in order to ward off the dangers of the church, than to have undertaken it for the ſake of ruling." We alſo congratulate you on thoſe ample rewards to which this ſacrifice will entitle you from God, the rewarder of the good. For, as the ſame St. Gregory Nazianzen writes, "Thoſe who abdicate thrones will not loſe God, but will acquire a heavenly throne, much higher and ſafer." In the laſt place, we congratulate you, conſidering thoſe advantages the whole prieſthood will receive from theſe memorable examples of minds labouring, not for themſelves, but for the things which belong to God and the church: theſe inſtances of obedience, humility, faith, and of all epiſcopal holineſs, with which you are about to crown the end of your epiſcopacy —this virtue of yours, indeed, will ſhut the mouths of thoſe detractors of the prieſthood who calumniate the

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miniſters of the ſanctuary, by aſſerting that they find nothing in them but pride, haughtineſs, and avarice. This new glory, by which you will render yourſelves illuſtrious, will extort an involuntary admiration of your virtue, from men who will be obliged to confeſs, in regard to the church, what the ſame St. Auguſtine affirms in the above-mentioned letter to Caſtorius: "That there are ſome men in its boſom who ſeek not thoſe things which are their own, but the things of Jeſus Chriſt."

We are compelled by the exigency of the times, which even exerciſes its violence on us, to ſignify that it is abſolutely neceſſary for you to give a written anſwer within ten days, and that your anſwer be tranſmitted to the perſon by whom the preſent letter will be delivered to you, which you ought to teſtify by an authentic document that you have received. We muſt alſo ſignify to you, for the ſame urgent cauſes, that the anſwer given muſt be definitive, not dilatory; ſo that unleſs a definitive anſwer be given within ten days (and that you will do ſo, we entreat you again and again), if a dilatory anſwer is returned, we ſhall be obliged to conſider you as having refuſed to comply with our requeſt.

But that this you will not do, we have reaſon to hope, from your ardent deſire both to preſerve religion, and to promote the peace of the whole church; from your obedience to us, which is the peculiar duty of children; and from that anxiety which you have always ſhown of aſſiſting by your virtue our infirmity, under that great load of cares with which we are oppreſſed. Nay, we are certain, that, with cheerful and ready minds, you will obey our commands, with which we are obliged to try your virtue, in order to eſtabliſh the good of the church; eſpecially ſince you poſſeſs too much penetration not to know, that if you refuſe to comply with our requeſt, that no obſtacles may be oppoſed by us to preſerving the unity of the catholic religion, and reſtoring the tranquillity of the church (we declare with grief, but we muſt declare, while ſo much danger hangs over the Gallican church from us), we muſt neceſſarily have recourſe to that conduct which will remove all impediments, and by which alone the good of religion can be promoted.

By the favour and good will which we have always ſhewn towards you, venerable brethren, by the opinion we have always had of your virtue, dignity, and merits, we flatter ourſelves that you are ſo perſuaded that we do not think it neceſſary to expend many words in aſſuring you, that nothing has been omitted on our part which could tend to prevent you from being expoſed to this bitterneſs. But it is with great grief we muſt confeſs that all our anxiety, and all our labour to reſiſt the neceſſity of the times, has been fruitleſs. We are compelled to yield, that the catholic religion may be benefited by this ſacrifice. After maturely weighing theſe circumſtances, we ſhould ſeem to queſtion the ſincerity of your religious profeſſion, if we ſhould conclude that you will prefer your own advantage to the preſervation and good order of the church, forgetting what St. Auguſtine ſaid, in the name of the African biſhops, to the tribune Marcellinus, when he declared that thoſe biſhops were ready to abdicate their chairs: "Why ſhould we heſitate to make that ſacrifice of humility

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humility to our Redeemer?—Did he deſcend from heaven in the human form, that we ſhould be members of his body; and ſhall we fear to deſcend from our chairs, to prevent his limbs from being torn by cruel diviſion?

"Perſonally we are only faithful and obedient chriſtians. This we always are, but we were ordained biſhops for the chriſtian people. As biſhops, therefore, let us do what may benefit chriſtian people, by promoting chriſtian peace. If we are uſeful ſervants, why ſhould we prefer our temporal grandeur to eternal gain in the lord? The epiſcopal dignity will be more fruitful to us, if by laying it down we collect the flock of Chriſt, than if we ſhould diſperſe it by retaining it; for with what face in future can we hope for the honour promiſed by Chriſt, if chriſtian unity is impeded by our worldly honour.

As we cannot therefore doubt, when we reflect on your tried virtue and religion, that you will conſult the advantage of the church, and the good of the faithful, while we implore the Almighty God to ſtrengthen your virtue, that with more readineſs, as becomes willing givers, you may offer to him this gift; and while we promiſe, as far as in us lies, to take care that you ſhall be hereafter provided for, we conſer on you our apoſtolic bleſſing, as a pledge of our paternal love.

Given at Rome, at St. Mary the Greater, under the Fiſherman's ſeal, Auguſt 15, 1801, in the ſecond year of our pontificate.

Pius PP. VII.
Michael. patriarch of Jeruſalem,

Monſignore Erſkine's ſecond circular Letter to the French Biſhops reſiding in England.

My lord,

In my letter of the 16th inſtant, with which I had the honour to tranſmit the brief of the ſovereign pontiff, which I ſent to you by the expreſs order of his holineſs pope Pius VII. as well as to each of your colleagues reſiding in this kingdom, I ſolicited your greatneſs, as well as your colleagues, to tranſmit to me that anſwer each individually would think proper to make. I have, however, heard it ſaid, that in conſequence of the meeting held by your greatneſſes, you intended to anſwer collectively to the paternal invitation of his holineſs; I therefore find myſelf ſtrictly obliged, my lord, to inform you, and beg of you to intimate the ſame to your colleagues, that by this means you will not fulfil the intention of his holineſs, who has preciſely commanded me to tranſmit his brief to each of you, in order that you might ſeparately, and after you had invoked by your prayers the diſtribution of underſtanding, make ſuch an anſwer as you conceive yourſelves in conſcience to be inſpired with by the Father of mercies.

I am perſuaded, my lord, that you and your colleagues would experience an acute ſenſation, if in the anſwer to his holineſs you had adopted, even involuntarily, a method little conformable to the deſires of the holy father, and which are not entirely congenial to the filial reſpect which you have conſtantly manifeſted towards the ſovereign pontiff. I flatter myſelf therefore

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fore that you will accept the present advice.

I have the honour to be, with the most perfect consideration, your greatnesses most humble and obedient servant,

C. Erskine.

No. 42, St. Mary-le-bone-street, London, September 22, 1801.

Letter written by the Thirteen French Bishops resident in London, to the Pope, in Answer to his Brief of the 15th of August, 1801, *dated October*, 1801.

WE will not conceal from your holiness the heavy anxiety which pressed upon our minds when first we received the letter of your holiness, dated on the 15th of August, 1801, in the second year of your pontificate, which is indeed so great, that as we at all times thought nothing more incumbent on us, and had nothing more at heart, than zealously to promote, as far as in our power, your paternal councils, yet they should find us now not only uncertain and fluctuating, but, in a duty of this nature, compel us to be even reluctant to obey.

Such is the force of these letters, that if that be done which they enjoin, all the episcopal sees in France will be left vacant at one and the same point of time. But by what means this sudden abdication of all the churches of that most extensive empire is to produce throughout France, the salutary effect of unity, and of preserving or restoring the catholic religion, your holiness has not informed us, nor, to confess the truth, do we as yet sufficiently foresee. Truly the very experience of all the calamities with which our country has been afflicted for many years, sufficiently shews that it is not without reason we dread, that, by this voluntary and universal abdication of all the churches, more grievous inconveniences would result to the catholic cause; for which, to acquaint your holiness with the means of prevention belongs only to a convocation of all the bishops of the Gallican church.

Nor indeed do we mean to say this, as if it would seem grievous or a hardship upon us to resign our rank in these melancholy and troublesome times, but rather that it would, as much as possible, conduce to the private happiness of each of us, to have our infirmity relieved from so great a burden, if we may still think any thing of happiness or consolation with minds broken by the weight of so many misfortunes. But the line of our duty seems to us fully to require that we should never suffer that tie which has bound us, and the churches immediately commited by the providence of the most great and good God, to our care, to be broken.

We earnestly beseech your holiness, that, in some writing speedily to be drawn up, we may be permitted to disclose and enter somewhat more at large into the arguments upon which we thought right to act in this manner, and the grounds of our resolution. In the mean time, greatly confiding in the affection of your holiness towards us, we hope it will so happen that nothing further will be determined in this business before you shall, in your

your conſummate equity and prudence, weigh the reaſons upon which your children ſhall plead their cauſe before their moſt pious father.

Proſtrate at the knees of your holineſs, moſt ardently we invoke the apoſtolic benediction of your holineſs, the moſt devoted and dutiful ſons,

Narbone,	Noyon,
Angouleme,	Periguex,
Arras,	St. Pol de Leon,
Avaranches,	Vannes,
Lombez,	Uſez,
Montpelier,	Rhodes,
Nantez,	Moulins.

[All the other biſhops acceded to the papal requiſition.]

View of the Republic, preſented in the Legiſlative Body, at Paris, on the 23d November, 1801, by the Counſellor of State Thibaudeau.

IT is with a pleaſing ſatisfaction that the government offers to the nation the picture of the ſtate of France, during the year that has paſſed over. Every thing at home and abroad has aſſumed a new appearance, and whatever way we caſt our eyes, a long perſpective of hope and happineſs opens upon us.

In the weſt and in the ſouth, remnants of banditti infeſted the roads and deſolated the fields inviſible to the armed force which purſued them, or protected againſt it by the very terror with which they inſpired their victims. Even in the boſom of the tribunals, if they happened to be brought before them, their audacity froze with fear the accuſers, the witneſſes, the juries, and the judges. Theſe monſters ruſhed unpuniſhed from the hands of juſtice to the commiſſion of new crimes.

Againſt this peſt, ſo deſtructive of all ſociety, it was neceſſary to make uſe of other arms than the ſlow and gradual forms with which public juſtice purſues ſolitary criminals, who conceal themſelves in ſilence and in darkneſs.

Special tribunals were created, whoſe powers, more rapid and more ſure, might overtake and ſtrike them. The great criminals have been ſeized. The witneſſes have ceaſed to be mute. The judges have obeyed their conſciences, and ſociety has been avenged. Thoſe who have eſcaped from juſtice, are ſince flying from one hiding place to another; and the republic every day vomits from its boſom this laſt ſcum of the waves with which it has been ſo long agitated.

Still innocence has had nothing to fear. The ſecurity of the citizens has not been alarmed by the meaſures deſtined for the puniſhment of their oppreſſors; and the unfavourable preſages with which it was attempted to intimidate liberty, have been realized only againſt guilt.

From the month of May in the 9th year, to the 23d September in the 10th year, ſeven hundred and twenty-four judgments have been pronounced by the ſpecial tribunals; nineteeen only have been rejected by the tribunal of appeal, on the ground of incompetence. They cannot, therefore, be reproached with exceſs of power, nor with any violation of ordinary juſtice.

The government, from the firſt day of its inſtitution, proclaimed liberty of conſcience. This ſolemn act calmed the minds which had been frightened by imprudent rigours

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gours. The ceſſation of religious diſſenſion has been ſince announced, and in fact meaſures have been concerted with the ſovereign pontiff of the catholic church to reunite in the ſame ſentiments thoſe who profeſs a common belief. At the ſame time a magiſtrate, charged with every thing that concerns public worſhip, has attended to the rights of every ſect; he has collected, in conferences with the Lutheran and Calviniſtic miniſters, the information neceſſary to prepare regulations, which will ſecure to all the liberty which belongs to them, and the publicity which the intereſt of ſocial order gives authority to grant them.

The ſupport of all modes of worſhip will be provided for by equal means: nothing will be left to the arbitrary diſpoſal of theirminiſters, and the public treaſure will not feel any increaſe in the burden of the charge.

If ſome citizens have been alarmed by empty rumours, let them quiet themſelves; the government has done every thing to reconcile the minds of the citizens: but it has done nothing that could wound their principles, or the independence of their opinions.

The continental peace ſet at reſt whatever inquietude, whatever vain fears ſtill remained: already bleſſed with the happineſs of which they had ſo long been in expectation, the citizens repoſed on the boſom of the conſtitution, and attached their whole deſtiny to it.

Enlightened and faithful miniſters have ſeconded well this diſpoſition of the public mind; every exertion of authority exerciſed by them has met nothing but zeal, love, and gratitude.

Hence the government has acquired that ſecurity which makes its ſtrength; it has no more doubt of the opinion of the public than its own intentions, and has dared to appeal to it without dreading its reply. A prince, iſſuing from the blood which reigned over France, has traverſed our departments, has ſojourned in the capital, has received from the government all the honours due to his crown, and from the citizens all the reſpect that one people owes to another in the perſon who is called to exerciſe its government, without a ſingle ſuſpicion to alter the calm of adminiſtration, or a ſingle rumour to diſturb the tranquillity of the public mind. The countenance of a free, and the affection of a hoſpitable people, have been ſeen throughout: foreigners, and the enemies of the country, have perceived that the republic was in the hearts of the French, and that it had already acquired there all the maturity of ages.

The return of our warriors into the French territory has been a ſucceſſion of fetes and of triumphs. Theſe conquerors, ſo terrible in battle, have been as friends and brothers among us; bleſſed in the public happineſs, enjoying, without haughtineſs, the gratitude that they deſerve; and, by the moſt ſevere diſcipline, proving themſelves worthy of the victories which they had obtained.

In the war that remained yet to be carried on, events have been chequered with ſucceſs and reverſes. Reduced to the neceſſity of ſtruggling againſt the marine of England, with an inferior force, our navy has ſhown itſelf with courage in the Mediterranean, when that ſea was covered with the fleets of the enemy. On the ocean it has recalled ſome remembrance of its ancient

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ancient ſplendour; by a glorious reſiſtance it has aſtoniſhed England, collected on her coaſt to be witneſs of her own defeat; and if peace had not been reſtored, there was no reaſon to hope that it would avenge its paſt misfortunes, as well as the faults that had produced them.

In Egypt, the ſoldiers of the army of the Eaſt have yielded; but they have yielded rather to circumſtances, than to the force of Turkey and of England, and certainly they would have conquered, if they had fought united. At length they return to their country, and they return with the glory which is due to four years of courage and of labour. They leave in Egypt an immortal memory, which will, perhaps, one day revive there the arts and inſtitutions of ſociety. Hiſtory at leaſt will not paſs over in ſilence all that the French have done to introduce into that country the civilization and improvements of Europe. It will relate by what efforts they conquered it, with what wiſdom and what diſcipline they ſo long preſerved it, and, perhaps, it will deplore their loſs of it as a new calamity to mankind.

Twenty-eight thouſand Frenchmen entered Egypt for the purpoſe of conquering it; more have been ſent there at different periods ſince, but others have returned to nearly the ſame number. Twenty-three thouſand re-enter France, after the evacuation, without including the foreigners who have followed their fortunes. So that four campaigns, a number of battles, and the effects of diſeaſes, have not altogether carried off one fifth of the army of the Eaſt.

After the continental war, every reduction in the army that circumſtances would permit, has been carried into effect by the government.

Unconditional diſcharges are granted; they are granted without preference, without favour, and according to an order irrevocably fixed. Thoſe who have firſt taken arms in obedience to the laws of the requiſition, obtained them firſt.

In order to fill up the vacancy which theſe diſcharges will leave in the army, it will be neceſſary to call upon the conſcripts of the ninth and tenth years; and, in the courſe of the preſent ſeſſion, a project of a law will be propoſed to the legiſlative body to place them at the diſpoſal of the government, but the government will only call upon the number ſtrictly neceſſary for maintaining the complete peace eſtabliſhment of the army.

We will enjoy the peace, but the war will leave us a burden, which will, for a long time, weigh heavy on our finances, to pay off expenſes which could neither be foreſeen nor calculated, to recompenſe the ſervices of our defenders, and to reanimate the works of our arſenals and our ports, to reſtore the French marine, to create anew all that the war has deſtroyed, all that time has conſumed, in fine, to carry all our eſtabliſhments to the point which the greatneſs and the ſecurity of the republic require; all this cannot be done without an increaſe of revenue. The revenues will increaſe of themſelves with the peace. The government will manage them with the moſt ſtrict economy; but, if the natural increaſe of the revenues, if the moſt ſtrict economy, ſhould not be ſufficient, the nation will judge the wants, and the government

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vernment will propoſe the reſources which circumſtances ſhall render neceſſary.

During the whole courſe of the ninth year, ſcarcely were a few imperfect communications maintained between the mother-country and the colonies.

Guadaloupe has preſerved ſome remnant of culture and proſperity; but the ſovereignty of the republic has received more than one outrage. In the eighth year, a ſingle agent commanded there; he was baniſhed by a faction. Three agents ſucceeded him, two of them baniſhed the third, and replaced him with a man of their own choice; another dies, and the two that remain inveſt themſelves ſolely with the power that ſhould be exerciſed by three. Under, this mutilated and illegal agency, anarchy, and deſpotiſm, reigned by turns. The coloniſts and the allies, accuſe and charge it with errors and crimes. The government tried to organize a new adminiſtration. A captain-general, a preſect, a commiſſary of juſtice, ſubordinate among themſelves, but ſucceeding each other as occaſion may require, preſent a ſingular power poſſeſſing a ſort of check, but no rivalſhip that could impede its action, or paralyſe its ſtrength. This adminiſtration exiſts, and it will ſoon be known if it juſtifies the hopes that have been conceived of it.

From the moment of his arrival, the captain-general had to combat the ſpirit of faction. He thought it his duty to ſend to France thirteen individuals, contrivers of diſturbance and promoters of baniſhments.

The government conceived that ſuch men would be dangerous in France, and ordered that they ſhould be ſent to any of the colonies that they chooſe, Guadaloupe excepted.

At St. Domingo ſome irregular acts have given alarm for its allegiance. The government has not choſen to ſee under equivocal appearances any thing but that ignorance which confounds names and things, and uſurps, when it thinks it is only obeying; but an army and a fleet, which are preparing to ſet out from the ports of Europe, will ſoon have diſſipated all theſe clouds, and St. Domingo will return entirely under the laws of the republic.

At St. Domingo and at Guadaloupe there are no longer any ſlaves, all are free, and all ſhall remain free. Prudence and time will reſtore order in them, and re-eſtabliſh cultivation and induſtry.

At Martinique different principles will prevail. Martinique has kept up ſlavery, and ſlavery ſhall ſtill be kept up there. Humanity has already ſuffered too much to attempt a new revolution in this part.

Guiane has proſpered under an active and vigorous governor; it will proſper ſtill more under the empire of peace, and by the addition of a new territory, which calls for cultivation, and promiſes wealth.

The iſles of France and Reunion have remained faithful to the mother-country in the midſt of factions, and under an adminiſtration feeble and unſettled, ſuch as chance made it, and which has received from the government neither her impulſe nor aſſiſtance. Theſe colonies, ſo important, are confirmed; they no longer fear that the mother-country, by giving liberty to the blacks, will eſtabliſh the ſlavery of the whites.

In our foreign relations, the government will not fear to develop their principles and their maxims.

Fidelity

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Fidelity to our allies, reſpect for their independence, frankneſs and loyalty towards our enemies; ſuch has been the policy of government.

Batavia reproached her political organization with not having been conceived for her.

But for ſome years that organization governed Batavia. The principle of the government is, that nothing is more fatal to the happineſs of a people than the inſtability of their inſtitutions; and when the Batavian directory endeavoured to aſcertain their opinion reſpecting alterations, they conſtantly reminded them of this principle.

But at length the Batavian people wiſhed to alter their organization, and they have adopted a new conſtitution. Government have acknowledged that conſtitution; and it was their duty to acknowledge it, becauſe it was the will of an independent people.

Twenty-five thouſand men were to remain in Batavia, according to the terms of the treaty of the Hague, until the general peace. The Batavians deſired this force to be reduced; and in virtue of a recent convention, they have been reduced to 10,000 men.

Helvetia has afforded, during the year nine, the ſpectacle of a people torn by parties, each of thoſe parties invoking the power and ſometimes the arms of France.

Our troops have received orders to return to our territories; 4000 men alone ſtill remain in Helvetia, by the wiſh of all the local authorities who have claimed their remaining among them.

Often has Helvetia ſubmitted to the firſt conſul plans for organization; often has ſhe aſked his advice; he has always recalled her to the recollection of her independence: "Remember only," he has ſometimes ſaid, "the courage and virtues of your fathers; have an organization ſimple as their manners. Think of thoſe different religions, and thoſe different languages, which have their limits marked out; think of thoſe vallies, of thoſe mountains, that ſeparate you, of ſo many recollections attached to their natural boundaries; and let there remain of all that an impreſſion in your organization.—Above all, as an example to the people of Europe, preſerve liberty and equality to that nation, which firſt taught them to be free and independent."

Theſe were but counſels, and they were coolly heard. Helvitia remains without a pilot in the midſt of ſtorms. The miniſter of the republic has been nothing more than a conciliator amidſt the divided parties, and the general of our troops has refuſed to ſanction the ſupport of his force.

The Ciſalpine and Liguria have at length decreed their organization. Both fear, in the movements of the firſt appointments, the revival of rivalſhip and hatred. They have appeared to deſire that the firſt conſul ſhould take theſe appointments upon himſelf.

He will endeavour to reconcile this wiſh of two republics ſo dear to France, with the more ſacred functions which his office impoſes upon him.

Lucca has expiated, in the agonies of a proviſionary regime, the errors that deſerved the indignation of the French people. She is now employed in giving herſelf a definitive organization.

The king of Tuſcany, tranquil upon his throne, has been acknowledged

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ledged by great powers, and will ſoon be by all.

Four thouſand French are guarding Leghorn for him, and will evacuate it when he ſhall have organized a national army.

Piedmont forms our 27th military diviſion, and under a milder regime, forgets the miſeries of a long anarchy.

The holy father, ſovereign of Rome, poſſeſſes his ſtates in their integrity. Peſaro, Fano, Caſtel St. Leone, which had been occupied by Ciſalpine troops, have been reſtored to him.

Fifteen hundred French troops are ſtill in the citadel of Ancona, and in order to enſure the communication with the army of the South.

After the peace of Luneville, France might have fallen with her whole weight upon the kingdom of Naples, have puniſhed the ſovereign for having firſt broken the treaties, and have made him repent the affront the French had received in the very port of Naples; but the government thought themſelves revenged as ſoon as they had the power of being revenged; they felt nothing more than the deſire and the neceſſity of peace; to give it, they demanded only the port of Otranto, neceſſary to their deſigns in the Eaſt, as Malta had been occupied by the Britiſh.

Paul the Firſt loved France; he wiſhed for the peace of Europe; he wiſhed, above all, for the freedom of the ſeas. His great ſoul was moved by the pacific ſentiments which the firſt conſul had manifeſted; it was afterwards moved by our ſucceſſes and our victories; and hence the firſt ties that attached him to the republic.

Eight thouſand Ruſſians had been made priſoners in fighting with the allies; but the adminiſtration that then directed England had refuſed to exchange them for French priſoners. The government was indignant at this refuſal; they reſolved to reſtore thoſe brave warriors, abandoned by their allies, to their country; they reſtored them in a manner worthy the republic, of themſelves, and of their ſovereign. Hence cloſer ties and more intimate approximation.

On a ſudden Ruſſia, Denmark, Sweden, and Pruſſia united; a coalition was formed to guaranty the freedom of the ſeas; Hanover was occupied by the Pruſſian troops; great and vaſt operations were preparing; but Paul died ſuddenly.

Bavaria haſtened to revive the ties that united her to France. That ally, ſo important to us, has ſuſtained great loſſes on the left bank of the Rhine; the intereſt and the deſire of France are, that Bavaria ſhall obtain a juſt and full indemnity.

Great diſcuſſions have taken place at Ratiſbon upon the execution of the treaty of Luneville; but thoſe diſcuſſions do not immediately concern France. The peace of Luneville, concluded with the empire, and ratified by the diet, has irrevocably fixed on that ſide all the intereſts of the republic. If the republic ſtill take part in the diſcuſſions of Ratiſbon, it is only as guarantee of the ſtipulations contained in the 7th article of the treaty of Luneville, and for the purpoſe of maintaining a juſt equilibrium in Germany.

Peace has been ſigned with Ruſſia; and nothing will hereafter diſturb the relation of two great people, who, with ſo many reaſons for loving, have none for fearing each other; and whom nature has placed the two extremities of Europe,

to

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to be the counterpoiſe of the north and the ſouth.

The Porte, reſtored to her real intereſts, and her inclinations for France, has again found her moſt faithful and ancient ally.

With the united ſtates of America, all difficulties have been removed.

Finally, the preliminaries of peace with England have been ratified.

Peace with England muſt have been the produce of long negotiations, maintained by a ſyſtem of war, which, though ſlow in its preparation, was infallible in its reſult.

Already the greater part of her allies had abandoned her. Hanover, the ſole poſſeſſion of her ſovereign upon the continent, remained in the power of Pruſſia; the Porte, menaced by our important poſitions on the Adriatic had entered upon a private negotiation.

Portugal remained to her; having been ſo long under the influence of the excluſive commerce of the Engliſh, Portugal was, in fact, no more than a province of Great Britain. It was there that Spain was to find a compenſation for the ceſſion of Trinidada. Her army advances; a diviſion of the troops of the republic encamp upon the frontier of Portugal, to ſupport her operations; but, after the firſt hoſtilities and ſome light ſkirmiſhes, the Spaniſh miniſter ratifies ſeparately the treaty of Badajoz. From that time the loſs of Trinidada to Spain was to be predicted; from that time, in fact, England conſidered it as a poſſeſſion acquired to her, and removed out of the negotiation every thing that could ſuppoſe the reſtitution of it poſſible.

Before the ratification of the particular treaty of France with Portugal, the government made known to the cabinet of Madrid that determination of England.

England refuſed, with the ſame inflexibility, the reſtoration of Ceylon. But the Batavian republic will find, in the numerous poſſeſſions that are reſtored to her, the reeſtabliſhment of her commerce and her power.

France has ſupported the intereſts of her allies with as much ſtrength as her own: ſhe has done it to the extent of ſacrificing greater advantages than ſhe could have obtained for herſelf; but ſhe was forced to ſtop at the point in which all negotiation became impoſſible. Her exhauſted allies afforded her no more reſources for the continuance of war; and the objects, the reſtitution of which was refuſed them by England, did not balance to them the chances of a new campaign, and all the calamities with which it might overwhelm them.

Thus, in all parts of the world, the republic has only friends or allies, and her commerce and her induſtry are returning to their accuſtomed channels.

In the whole courſe of the negotiations, the preſent adminiſtration of England have ſhown a frank deſire to put an end to the miſeries of war; the Engliſh people have embraced peace with enthuſiaſm; the hatred of rivalſhip is extinguiſhed; the emulation of great actions and uſeful enterpriſes will only remain.

The government have made it their ambition to replace France in her natural relations with all nations; they will make it their glory to maintain their work, and to perpetuate a peace which ſhall conſtitute their happineſs

happineſs as well as the happineſs of humanity.

The firſt conſul,
Bonapate.
The ſecretary of ſtate,
H. B. Maret.

Conſtitution of the Batavian People.

General Principles and Diſpoſitions.

ART. 1. The happineſs of the whole is the firſt of laws. Conſequently, no member, nor any ſection of ſociety, can receive advantage by any particular law to the prejudice of others.

2. All the members of ſociety are equal in the eye of the law, without diſtinction of rank or birth.

3. Each citizen may do what he pleaſes; but remains reſponſible to, and according to the law, both for his actions and the ſentiments he propagates.

4. The law eſtabliſhes the neceſſary diſpoſitions for enſuring to every citizen an honeſt ſubſiſtence, but all privileged bodies and excluſive affiliations are aboliſhed.

5. Every inhabitant is maintained in the peaceable poſſeſſion and enjoyment of his property. No one can be deprived of any part of his poſſeſſions, unleſs the general good imperiouſly requires it; and in that caſe, he ſhall receive a juſt and proper indemnity.

6. Every inhabitant is inviolable in his habitation; no one can enter it without his conſent, and in virtue of an order iſſued by the proper authority.

7. No one can be arreſted but according to the law. No one can be tried or condemned but by the judge acknowledged by the conſtitution of the law, and until after being ſummoned agreeably to what they proſcribe, and having obtained all the means of defence which they determine.

8. Every citizen muſt be heard in three days after he has been delivered into the hands of his natural judge. A copy of the motives of his arreſtation cannot be refuſed to him: the law determines the puniſhment of the judge who ſhall offend againſt theſe diſpoſitions. If the examination and motives of arreſtation have not been communicated within the time above proſcribed, the priſoner has a right to be releaſed, and without any delay.

9. All uſeleſs ſeverity in the guarding of priſoners is forbidden. All violent means for extorting confeſſion are aboliſhed.

10. Every citizen has a right to addreſs, in writing, petitions, and propoſitions to the conſtituted authorities, provided they are ſigned individually; in any other caſe they cannot be made but by the bodies conſtituted by the law, and muſt relate only to objects which have relation to the functions which they diſcharge.

11. All religious ſocieties, which acknowledge a ſupreme Being, and rendering homage to him, tend to favour virtue and good morals, are equally protected by the law. Every religious ſociety publicly profeſſes its opinions, and grants free acceſs to the places conſecrated to the exerciſe of its worſhip.

12 Every head of a family, and every independent perſon of either ſex, who has attained to the age of fourteen, muſt inſcribe their names in one of theſe religious ſocieties, which

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which they may freely quit to enter into another. Every ſociety requires from its members an annual contribution for the maintenance of its miniſters and of its property. This contribution, however, can never exceed the ſum ſtipulated for that purpoſe by the law.

13. Every religious ſociety ſhall remain irrevocably in poſſeſſion of what it poſſeſſed at the commencement of the preſent century.

14. No excluſive civil rights can be attached to any of them. The teachers, miniſters, and eccleſiaſtical ſervants of the reformed religion, therefore the prevailing religion, who being paid ſalaries or penſions from the public treaſures, are actually in exerciſe, ſhall continue to enjoy their incomes and penſions until the full execution of the diſpoſitions preſcribed by article 12.

15. All the laws and diſpoſitions, which, ſince the commencement of the year 1795, have leſſened the value of property or poſſeſſions legally acquired, are ſubject to reviſion. Whoever has been injured by theſe laws, may apply to the regency of the ſtate, which, according to the exigency of the caſe, ſhall propoſe to the legiſlative body either a repeal of the law, or its reviſion, or a juſt and proper indemnity.

16. Feudality is aboliſhed; all fiefs are declared allodial. The law provides an indemnity for the poſſeſſors of lordſhips.

17. The Batavian people deſire that the national guard, eſtabliſhed for the purpoſe of enſuring liberty and maintaining the national independence, ſhall be encouraged by every proper means. No citizen, forming part of that guard, is obliged to ſerve beyond the territory of the republic. He is not bound to any ſervice beyond his department, without a decree of the legiſlative body, and only in the caſe of an attack from the enemy. The active ſervice of the national guard in each department is farther determined by the law.

18. The ſame kinds of money ſhall be coined and circulated throughout the whole republic, according to the manner and value which the law ſhall eſtabliſh.

19. The weights and meaſures already known in the republic ſhall be uniformly regulated. The law ſhall fix the mode and the period when this diſpoſition ſhall be carried into execution.

Of the Diviſion of the Territory and the Right of Suffrage.

20. The Batavian republic is one and indiviſible.

21. Its European territory remains divided into eight departments, the limits of which ſhall be thoſe of the ancient provinces; the modifications under mentioned remain: the country of Drenthe ſhall be united to the province of Overyſſel; and Batavian Brabant ſhall form an eighth department; Ameland ſhall form part of Frieſland; Wedde and Weſt Woldingerland of Groningen; Yſſelſtein of Holland; Vlane of Utrecht; and Kuilenburg and Buren of Guelderland. The law ſhall farther determine to what department the countries, which are already or may hereafter be annexed to the territory of the republic, ſhall belong.

22. Each department ſhall be, in regard to its limits, divided into a certain number of diſtricts. It is according to this regulation that the election of the members of the departmental

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partmental adminiſtration ſhall take place.

23. The preſent diviſion of the primary aſſemblies is maintained for the election of the members of the legiſlative body.

24. Thoſe who unite the following qualities are active citizens:—1ſt, Thoſe who have inſcribed the place of their habitation in the national regiſter.—2d, Thoſe who have attained to the full age of twenty-one, or who form a part of the national guard.—3d, Thoſe who have reſided without interruption in the republic for one year, if natives of the country, or ſix years if foreigners.—4th, Thoſe who can read and write Dutch, a diſpoſition which, however, cannot be applicable to citizens inſcribed before the 23d of April, 1799.—5th, Thoſe who have made the following declaration; "I promiſe fidelity to the conſtitution, and ſubmiſſion to the law."

25. The following are excluded from voting:—1ſt, Thoſe who are in the ſervice of any foreign power, or who receive from it a penſion; 2d, Domeſtics who receive wages attached to perſonal houſehold ſervice; 3d, Thoſe maintained in the houſes of charity, orphan-houſes, and hoſpitals; 4th, Thoſe who, during the laſt ſix months, have been maintained from the poor's box; 5th, Thoſe under tutorſhip on account of bad conduct, diſſipation, or mental derangement; 6th, Bankrupts, as well as thoſe who have given up their property, until their creditors are paid; 7th, Thoſe who are in a ſtate of accuſation, or who in juſtice are known to be infamous.

26. The law fixes the manner in which the right of ſuffrage ought to be exerciſed, and the qualification in regard to property required in the perſon to be elected.

27. The miniſters of any worſhip are not eligible to functions depending on the government.

28. The military cannot exerciſe their functions, but in the place of their reſidence, and in ſo far as it is diſtinct from that where they are in garriſon.

Of the Government.

29. The government is intruſted to a regency of ſtate, compoſed of twelve members, choſen from among the active citizens, of full thirty-five years of age, born within the republic, having reſided in it for the laſt ſix years, and not being connected by relationſhip or alliance within the fourth degree with any member of the regency. They ſhall enjoy an annual penſion of 10,000 florins.

30. For this time, ſeven of theſe members are immediately named by the preſent executive directory. Theſe ſeven members ſhall proceed to chooſe the other five. The twelve regents ſhall chooſe from among themſelves a preſident, who is elected for three months. During the firſt ſix months of the inſtallation of the regency of ſtate, if one or more vacancies ſhall happen, the remaining members ſhall proceed in the courſe of eight days to fill them up.

31. The regency of ſtate decrees the regulation of order for holding the ſittings. It ſhall divide itſelf into as many commiſſions as the different branches of the adminiſtration render neceſſary. Theſe commiſſions ſhall employ themſelves in diſcuſſing and examining the affairs referred to them by the council.

32. The regency ſhall unite to itſelf,

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itſelf, beſides a ſecretary-general, a ſecretary of ſtate, having the department of foreign affairs, three other ſecretaries of ſtate, having the departments of the marine, war, and interior: or if it is thought more proper, in place of each of the three latter, three councils, compoſed each of three members. In the laſt place, a council of finances, intruſted to three perſons, and a treaſurer-general.

33. The ſecretaries of ſtate, or the councils which ſupply their place, are charged with the adminiſtration of the affairs within their province, as well as the execution of the orders tranſmitted to them by the regency, agreeably to its inſtructions, and under their reſponſibility. They are named by the regency of the ſtate, from a triple liſt, formed by the ſection of the council of regency attached to the department to which they belong.

34. Every year one member of the regency of ſtate ſhall go out in rotation; this ſhall take place, for the firſt time, on the 1ſt of November, 1802, according to the order, which ſhall be determined by lot; for the annual going out of all the members. To ſupply the vacant places, the departments ſhall proceed, in the order hereafter preſcribed, to the nomination of four perſons, a liſt of whom ſhall be ſent to the regency. The latter ſhall reduce this number to two, from whom the legiſlative body ſhall make a definitive choice.

The legiſlative body is compoſed of thirty-five members, named, for the firſt time, by the government, during the firſt eight days of their inſtallation. Twelve of them choſen by a plurality of voices for the term of ſeſſion, ordinary or extraordinary, ſhall diſcuſs the laws propoſed.

Diſcuſſions on all projects, preſented during the firſt week of a common ſeſſion, muſt be terminated, at the lateſt, the laſt day of the ſeſſion, that is to ſay, the 30th of May, or the 15th of December.

During extraordinary convocations, the propoſitions which have given riſe to them, muſt be determined before the ſeparation of the legiſlative body, and within a month at the leaſt:

The members of the legiſlative body pronounce, on the projects preſented to them, by yes or no.

Theſe projects may always be withdrawn during the courſe of the diſcuſſion. If the project is rejected, the regency of ſtate, when it judges neceſſary, ſhall depute three of its members to the legiſlative body to explain and defend the motives of their vote: if the legiſlative body perſiſt in rejecting the project, it cannot be again brought forwards. In this caſe the legiſlative body muſt aſſign reaſons for their refuſal; the regency retains the right of preſenting another project.

The debts and obligations contracted, not only by the generality and in its name, but alſo in the names of the different provinces of the three quarters of Guelderland, the country of Drenthe, Batavian Brabant, and of the Eaſt India company, are declared national debts and obligations.

Contracts for rents, obligations, receipts, and all other obligatory acts, ſhall be exchanged as ſoon as poſſible for national obligations, without any deduction whatever of capital or intereſt.

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Promiſe of the Members of the Legiſlative Body.

I ſolemnly promiſe, that as member of the legiſlative body, and in conformity to the conſtitutional act, I will aſſiſt with all my power to ſupport the intereſts of the Batavian people, as well as to maintain their rights; and that I will diſcharge, with ſincerity and zeal, all the duties impoſed on me in this reſpect, without ever deviating from them for any conſideration whatever, favour or diſgrace, promiſes or preſents, or any other thing. I equally promiſe that I will in no manner concur, nor take part in any reſolution or project, that may tend to introduce hereditary dignities, or that may tend to deviate from the principles of a repreſentative popular government.

Promiſe of the Members of the Regency of State.

I ſolemnly promiſe, as member of the regency of ſtate, that agreeably to the conſtitution and power which has been intruſted to me, I will aſſiſt with all my might to maintain the intereſts of the Batavian people, to defend its rights, its rank, and dignity, to conſolidate, maintain, and enſure the independence of the republic, and the liberty of the citizens; that I will, with ſincerity and zeal, diſcharge all the duties impoſed on me in this reſpect, without ever departing from them on any conſideration whatever, favour or diſgrace, promiſes or preſents, or any other thing; and that I will never aſſiſt in any manner to form or countenance any project that may deviate from the principles of the conſtitution, or tend to introduce hereditary dignities, or which may be contrary to a popular repreſentative government; and I moreover promiſe, that if I come to the knowledge of any enterpriſe of this kind, I will oppoſe it, and endeavour to prevent it by all the means with which I have been intruſted.

Proclamation of the Executive Directory of the Batavian Republic, on preſenting, for the Acceptance of the People, a Plan of a new Conſtitution.

Liberty—Equality—Fraternity.

Citizens,

IF there ever was an epocha when private intereſt ought to be ſacrificed, prejudices combated, the paſſions moderated, and the ſpirit of party extinguiſhed; when the voice of truth ought to be heard, and nothing but duty, the love of our country, and experience, ought to guide us; it is, undoubtedly, at that time when we come to give an account of the reſult of thoſe meditations which for a long time have abſorbed all our conſideration. Theſe meditations, directed towards your deareſt intereſts, have had for their only object to eſtabliſh in our country an order of things, which might abſorb the paſt, and preſent for the future a flattering proſpect, and ſuch as might become, by the ſanction of all the citizens, a certain pledge of their reunion, and the foundation of their warmeſt hopes.

The interior ſtate of our country, its exterior relations, the political ſituation of Europe, the diſpoſitions of foreign powers in regard to our republic, demand our ſolicitude, ſhould excite our zeal, and preſent

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us beforehand the ſucceſs and recompenſe of our efforts.

And who is he, that, having obſerved, in ſilence, with the calmneſs natural to Batavians, the courſe of affairs, has not met, whichever way he turned his eyes, the traces of diviſion, of diſcontent, and a ſtrong deſire for another order of things?

But this diſpoſition of mind, ſo foreign to the character of a nation which attaches itſelf to its ancient cuſtoms, and has a hatred for innovation, has, more than once, been the cauſe of their preferring to remain as they were, in certain matters, inferior to other people, rather than ſacrifice the preſent, with all its diſadvantages, to the future. Will this diſpoſition ſurpriſe us, when, proceeding from effects to cauſes, we recollect all that the Batavian people have witneſſed and ſuffered within the laſt ſix years? Torn by inteſtine diviſions, menaced and aſſailed by the greateſt dangers; has it not ſeen, within that ſhort period, its finances exhauſted by a ruinous war; its commerce annihilated; the ſources of its exiſtence and its proſperity poiſoned; the greateſt part of its colonies torn away; its maritime efforts ſinking to nothing; its moſt valuable cargoes and beſt ſhips becoming the prey of the enemy? Notwithſtanding theſe diſaſters, have not theſe people ſacrificed, without murmur, their means to the unceaſing wants of the country?

This ſame people have ſupported ſo many loſſes, in the hopes of being one day delivered from the yoke which preſſed upon them; to reſume their rank among the nations of Europe, and once more to become, by their love of liberty, by good order and virtue, the example of ſome, and an object of emulation to others.

Very far, however, was ſucceſs from anſwering their attempts; very far. At the end of a ſtruggle, ſupported with ſuch conſtancy, a conſtitution, founded in the nature of circumſtances, adapted to the localities and to the manners of our fellow-citizens, re-eſtabliſhed tranquillity, happineſs, and union. The country was delivered to all the fury of the paſſions—citizens infuriate againſt citizens—the one pronouncing againſt the other the moſt unfounded judgement upon their works and opinions—envy and hatred uſurping the places of talents and information, and deciding arbitrarily upon the fate of the country; our firſt aſſemblies, inſtead of coming to the object of their union, opened in their deliberations new ſources of diviſion and trouble: ſuch is the picture that has been preſented by the republic, ſince the cloſe of the national convention, diſſolved as illegally as it was called together (after two years uſeleſs labour), gave place to a government, to whom it ſeemed reſerved to cloſe the wounds of the ſtate, and to rally all good citizens round the ſtandard of public good.

But here again the general attempt failed; and this long ſtruggle produced a conſtitution, vicious in its principle, and whoſe effects prove it to be the child of paſſion and precipitation.

We aſk of you, citizens, of you who have, on deciſive occaſions, ſhown you have at heart the intereſt of your country, we aſk of you to-day, whether that conſtitution is the law expreſſive of your wills? Is it adequate to your wants, to your cuſtoms, or to your character? Is it

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ſufficient for the preſervation of your rights? Or is it the work of a party, who, following all the windings of a crooked policy, wiſhed to make the government of a ſtate the property of a certain claſs of individuals?

Does not this conſtitution deprive you of the knowledge, ſo deſirable, of your own affairs? Does it not deprive you of that perſonal adminiſtration, without which there can exiſt neither order nor economy? Has it not reduced you to the neceſſity, to ſeek at diſtance, deciſions upon your domeſtic intereſts which you were accuſtomed to have almoſt without ſtirring for them? Can the general adminiſtration efficaciouſly protect and defend you? Thoſe whoſe duty is to inſtruct and counſel, can they ſee all themſelves? The objects ſubmitted to their deliberations, multiplied into infinity and placed at immenſe diſtances, like as upon a rugged rock whoſe approach is ſurrounded with difficulties, can they be ſeized by them, whatever may be their courage and their conſtancy?

The firſt miniſters of the ſtate, to prevent a ſtagnation in public affairs, are found to be ſurrounded with a multitude of ſubalterns, of which the leaſt evil is an increaſe of expenſe. When the courſe of human affairs is conſidered with impartiality, ought we not to fear, that perſons, to whom no reſponſibility attaches, may acquire an influence dangerous to public affairs, and that miniſters may become, notwithſtanding their vigilance, the inſtruments of the corruption of their agents? This ſtate is the more to be ſuſpected, as theſe agents may find the means to eſcape detection, by obtaining, by falſe repreſentation, orders under which they may cover their abuſe of confidence.

This picture, citizens, however ſad and diſcouraging it may appear, is not at all overcharged. It is the fruit of experience acquired on the part of government committed to our care. But far from ſtopping here, we ſhould regard as the effects of a heated imagination, thoſe defects which we have juſt detailed, if the deliberations and reſolutions of the repreſentative body did not oblige us to remark their ſimilar vices to thoſe we ſo ſadly deplore. How many laws diſcuſſed among them for three years, can be conſidered as general rules of conduct? Do there not exiſt as many particular laws as public ones? And does not the number increaſe every day with the wants and griefs of the inhabitants? The innumerable reſolutions paralyze the executive government, and bewilder thoſe citizens, whoſe duty or whoſe buſineſs obliges them to approach the abyſs. Far be it from us, however, to throw ſuſpicion on the head of the legiſlators. It is in the nature of things that we muſt act; and in order to leave no doubt upon this point, we will examine, with equal impartiality, the ſum of their labours.

It will be ſufficient to recall to your minds the diverſity of opinions upon ſeveral important articles; the difficulties which retarded the eſtabliſhment of ſome of the organic laws of the conſtitution; the conflicting ſentiments which theſe propoſitions cauſed in the two chambers; the numerous reports which it was neceſſary to preſent upon one ſingle affair, to underſtand it well, and in particular the labour upon the adminiſtration of the poor; upon the municipalities; that upon the civil

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civil tribunals, diſcuſſed a long time without any ultimate deciſion—in ſhort, the tedious and embarraſſing manner in which the moſt minute affairs were managed.

You muſt conclude then with us, citizens, that the legiſlative aſſembly could not, whatever was its zeal and energy, overcome the vices and obſtacles cauſed by its organization. The complication of conſtruction impeded its progreſs, and its evident effect was public and private ruin.—This ſtate of things, citizens, has long attracted our notice. Situated, by the nature of our functions, in a manner to appreciate the danger, could we avoid the obligation of finding the means to bring them to an end? But it was not ſufficient to know the evil and the remedy; we ought, like prudent phyſicians, to take into conſideration the ſtate of the patient, and not run the riſk of killing him, by adminiſtering, without caution, the remedies which ought to operate for his cure.

What had already paſſed, ſufficiently demonſtrated the neceſſity of reſting upon a ſolid baſis civil and political liberty, before we abandoned that ſyſtem, the fruit of our revolution, to the incertitude of future events.

Neither could a momentary ſuſpicion be entertained that the ſtadtholder ſhould be reſtored: that would have been giving to the cabinet of St. James's that fatal influence which ſhe has already uſed for the deſtruction of the proſperity of this once happy and flouriſhing country.

Thus far, then, the ſituation of affairs in Europe has given to the partizans of the houſe of Orange a hope of realizing their wiſhes. We could neither hope ſucceſs to our efforts, nor union of wills and ſentiments; but at preſent, that this queſtion is for ever determined, as it appears no cabinet nouriſhes the plan of reſtoring the ſtadtholder, we thought we could no longer delay a project, which a longer delay might have rendered abortive.

At preſent we feel ourſelves as happy in being able to addreſs ourſelves, not as the heads of a party, but to the whole of the republic; and to count equally upon thoſe, who, carried away by a blind zeal or ſeduced by prejudices, have hitherto ſearched for their country out of the country, and who, notwithſtanding, have never ceaſed to find there protection for their perſons and their property.

Peace is ſigned on the continent: the houſe of Auſtria has recogniſed our independence; our political relations with Ruſſia are renewed. Soon we ſhall reckon her envoy among the number of ambaſſadors of ſo many other people, allies, friends, and neighbours.

The French government cannot admit our independence with greater *eclat* than by the laſt convention which ſhe has juſt concluded; a convention which conſiderably diminiſhes expenſes, and at the ſame time takes from calumny that pretext with which ſhe has attempted more than once to ſerve herſelf, by drawing from the nature of the relation of the French army with the government, conſequences equally injurious to the French nation and humiliating to our republic.

Could we have juſtified ourſelves to our fellow-citizens, or in our own eyes, if, far from profiting by ſuch favourable circumſtances, the republic had been aſſigned, at the period of a general peace, a rank be-

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low what she had a right to expect? By that alone, we had hesitated to treat with a government which offered no guarantee, and, in effect, liable to be overturned in a year and a half, the epoch fixed for a revision of the constitution. Who could have answered, that it would then have taken effect in such a state of incertitude, of which we have already experienced the pernicious influence.

You know, citizens, that six years ago we made to the legislative body a proposition which had for its object the amelioration of the fundamental laws of the state. You were then, without doubt, convinced, by the course of its deliberations, that it is impossible (as the national convention has already furnished another proof) that so numerous an assembly, agitated by so many different passions, could give to the state a good constitution. Those who are called to defend and protect the state, wish with good faith its happiness; and its safety cannot expose it to new agitations.

Penetrated with this truth, and strong in the conviction that we have nothing in view but your welfare and your glory, we have formed a plan of a constitution which steers a middle course between the different opinions which have hitherto distracted the inhabitants of the country, and in which we are assured that the leading features are not displeasing to our natural ally. We have done more: in submitting this plan to the judgement of the people, we have given intelligence to the two chambers of the representative body. And, in fine, that every thing may pass with order, we have resolved as follows:—

1st. As soon as these presents are ready, the municipality shall submit to public examination a sufficient number of copies of this proclamation, and of the project of a constitution annexed.

2d. The 1st of October next they shall open registers in every commune of the republic, and shall furnish to every citizen of twenty years of age, who shall not be excluded the right of voting by the 13th article of the constitution, the means of giving his suffrage by aye or non, upon the presented plan.

3d. The 6th of October these registers shall be closed—the administration of every commune shall send the list of the votes to the executive directory as soon as possible, and at the latest, by the 15th of October, joining a general list of the actual citizens in their commune, that they may be enabled to communicate to the Batavian people the result of the votes. Every actual citizen, who does not vote, shall be considered as approving the plan of constitution.

Such, citizens, is the fruit of our long and painful meditations. At present, it remains with you to determine whether the project we present accords with your true interests, and has for its real objects the happiness of the people.

Let mature reflection guide your judgement, and suppress your passions; never forget that you are going to pronounce upon the fate of your country. For our parts, citizens, we shall attend with resignation the result of your deliberations; and whatever may be the consequences of your opinion, convinced that right was intended, we shall not doubt but that your judgement is that of all Europe.

The executive directory orders that this proclamation be fixed up in

in all the uſual places, with injunctions to the departmental adminiſtrations, to ſee that it be carried into execution as promptly as poſſible in the manner within preſcribed,

Done and ordained in the directorial aſſembly of the Batavian republic, at the Hague, the 14th September, 1801, 7th year of Batavian liberty.

(Signed) Bezier, preſident.

By command of the ſame,

(Signed) Daſſevael.

Proclamation of the New Batavian Conſtitution, by the Batavian Directory at the Hague, 16th October, 1801.

Batavians!

THE plan of a conſtitution which our duty and knowledge of your true intereſt obliged us to lay before you, has been accepted out of the 416,419 whoſe names were given in to us as entitled to vote, only 52,219 have voted for its rejection. By far the greater part of the nation have therefore given an unequivocal proof of their coinciding with us in ſentiment relative to the principles and form of the future conſtitution.

There can therefore no longer be any doubt of your wiſh and choice, ſince nothing prevents you from expreſſing them. Every thing in the conſtitution which was a reſtraint upon you we have removed. Tranquillity will now reign perpetually amidſt you, ſince you have deliberated and confirmed your choice. And though we have uſed every exertion to prevent your being miſled by the ignorant and prejudiced, we have not had recourſe either to force or intimidation to compel the acceptance of a conſtitution which you might conſider as detrimental to your intereſts.

At length a new order of things is, with your conſent, eſtabliſhed, and in which you have all, without diſtinction of rank or opinion, been able to co-operate; and if ever a plan of ſuch importance was carried into effect under fortunate auſpices it is this.

While you are employed in eſtabliſhing a wiſe and moderate conſtitution, conformable to your natural character and manners, and conducive to your happineſs, ſecurity, and welfare, the foundations have been laid abroad of a peace which embraces all the countries and ſeas of Europe, and the moſt diſtant parts of the world; which enables tortured humanity again to breathe, and affords you a diſtant proſpect of reaping the fruits of your fidelity and perſeverance, the reward of all your numberleſs ſacrifices.

Batavians, be happy in the conſtitution which you have accepted, and confirm it by your virtues and amity. We ſhall immediately, according to the 10th article of this conſtitution, nominate ſeven citizens, who, with five others, choſen by them, ſhall form the council of ſtate of the Batavian republic, that the new conſtitution may be carried into effect as ſpeedily as poſſible, agreeably to your wiſhes.

The directory commands that this proclamation ſhall be made public, and affixed in all the uſual places.

Given at the Hague, the 16th of October, 1801, in the 7th year of Batavian liberty.

(Signed) Van Hacrnſolte.

C. Daſſevael, loco ſec.

Memorial,

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Memorial, tranſmitted by his Serene Highneſs the Stadtholder to Lord Hawkeſbury, previous to the Departure of his Serene Highneſs from Hampton-Court.

THE prince of Orange being informed, that the ratifications of the preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majeſty and the French republic, ſigned on the 1ſt inſt. have been exchanged on the 10th; and thoſe articles, as publiſhed by government, having thus come to his knowledge, thinks he ought not to delay any longer, in a conjuncture ſo important to his intereſts, and thoſe of his houſe, to expreſs, without reſerve, his ſentiments and his wiſhes to his majeſty.

The unfortunate circumſtances which obliged the prince of Orange and his family to repair to England, in the year 1795, are too well known to make it neceſſary to renew the ſtatement of them in this place.

After having been received by his majeſty with the moſt affecting kindneſs, the prince of Orange experienced no leſs convincing proofs of his majeſty's goodneſs towards him during his ſtay in this country, where he has conſtantly been treated with the moſt generous hoſpitality. On every occaſion he received unequivocal aſſurances and marks of the unvaried intereſt which his majeſty and his government continued to take, not only in what related to himſelf and to his family, but alſo to the numerous and faithful adherents of the houſe of Orange, and the ancient conſtitution of the republic of the United Provinces. Theſe marks of intereſt had ſo often been repeated, that the prince of Orange has not even conceived it to be neceſſary for him to make any formal demand, founded upon the ſolemn engagements by which Great Britain guarantied, in 1788, the ſtadtholderate, and the other dignities hereditary in his houſe.

The prince of Orange has ſeen, with great concern, the courſe of events lead gradually to a ſtate of things very different from that under which thoſe engagements had been formed, and by which the probability of their being completely fulfilled was from day to day diminiſhing. Nevertheleſs, as long as the war was continued, he could never prevail upon himſelf to give up that hope entirely; but he awaited in ſilence the final iſſue of events. Now that the preliminaries of peace are concluded on the conditions known to the public, without the prince of Orange having received any information that any thing has been ſtipulated with reſpect to himſelf, he thinks himſelf under the obligation of breaking the ſilence he has hitherto thought fit to obſerve, and conſiders it as his indiſpenſable duty to recommend, in the ſtrongeſt and moſt preſſing manner, to the king's ſolicitude and powerful protection, at the approaching conferences for the formation of the definitive treaty, his own intereſts, thoſe of his houſe, and of a conſiderable number of his countrymen, who are become the unfortunate victims of their unſhaken zeal for his perſon and his cauſe—of their tried fidelity to the ancient government of their native country, and of their attachment to that ſyſtem which has ſo long and ſo cloſely united the republic of the United Provinces to Great Britain.

The prince of Orange thinks it would be injuring the generous feelings of his majeſty and his government

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vernment to dwell upon the motives which induce him to make this requeſt. He has no doubt of his majeſty's finding them in his own royal breaſt, and he flatters himſelf that the diſpoſitions he hopes to find on this ſubject, will add ſtill more to the manifold obligations he owes to the king, and of which he will never loſe the grateful remembrance.

The prince of Orange requeſts lord Hawkeſbury to lay the preſent note before his majeſty, and to inform him of his majeſty's intentions with reſpect to its contents. He takes this opportunity to aſſure lord Hawkeſbury of his perfect conſideration.

(Signed) W: prince of Orange.
Hampton-court palace,
13th Oct. 1801.

Letter from the Stadtholder to all the Members of the former Government.

HAVING learnt that ſeveral members of the government, miniſters, and other functionaries of the province of ———, who were in office on the 18th January, 1795, as well as before the revolutions that took place after that period, entertain ſcruples with reſpect to the acceptance of places under the preſent circumſtances, and ſince the introduction of the laſt conſtitution, and refuſe to take employments which have a relation to the government and adminiſtration of the country; I have thought it neceſſary to inform you by theſe preſents (requeſting you to make what uſe of them you think neceſſary), that, according to my opinion, there are no longer any motives which ſhould reſtrain you from uſing your efforts (conſidering the order of things which has lately been introduced) to procure for your country as much good as it is ſuſceptible of, and thereby to prevent its total ruin. You may accept, without difficulty, when you think proper, employments, and ſit in the colleges which are connected with the adminiſtration of the affairs of the country, and take a place in the government, co-operating with the members of the preſent government.

I am, with eſteem, &c.
W. prince of Orange.
Oranjeſtein, 25th Dec. 1801.

Articles of the new Helvetic Conſtitution, agreed to on the 29th September, 1801, at Berne.

1. THE integrity of Helvetia is a fundamental article of the Helvetic conſtitution.

2. The Helvetic republic forms only one ſtate:—its territory is divided into cantons.

3. There is only one right of Helvetic citizenſhip:—there are no political rights of citizens relative to diſtinct cantons.

4. The whole canton of Valais ſhall appertain to Helvetia, and not be ceded, unleſs France ſhould take poſſeſſion of it by force.

Farther Articles, voted upon the 1ſt and 2d of October, 1801.

5. The ſenate has the neceſſary propoſal of laws, but ſhall receive on the ſubject the remarks of the ſovereign authority of each canton, and lay the ſame, together with its propoſal, before the diet, which ſhall finally decide.

6. The

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6. The diet ſhall aſſemble ordinarily the firſt of February of every year, and extraordinarily, when either the majority of the cantons or the ſenate itſelf ſhall judge neceſſary.

7. The diet conſiſts of deputies from all the cantons, the number of which ſhall be fixed in proportion to the population.

8. The members of the diet ſhall be choſen in their reſpective cantons, in the manner preſcribed by the organization of each canton.

9. The ſenate poſſeſſes, together with the propoſal of laws, the direction of the general meaſures of government.

10. A committee appointed by the ſenate (the leſſer council) ſhall ſuperintend the execution of its determinations.

Decree of the ancient Helvetic Legiſlative Body; dated Berne, 28th October, 1801.

THE legiſlative council, conſidering the evils with which the country is menaced, by the incoherence of the labours of the Helvetic diet, and the manifeſt partiality which has ſwayed its deliberations:

Conſidering that this diet has miſtaken its duties and gone beyond the limits of its powers, in occupying itſelf upon a new plan of conſtitution, and arrogating to itſelf in fact the functions of a conſtituent aſſembly;

Conſidering that ſuch a ſtep is not juſtified by any power legitimately delegated, that it is even in formal oppoſition to the organic laws, as well as to the wiſh of Helvetia, tacitly expreſſed by the convocation of the aſſemblies of cantons;

Conſidering that, by the ſeceſſion of ſixteen members of that aſſembly, ſeveral cantons, not being repreſented at all, and others only being ſo partially, it has ceaſed to be the general Helvetic diet, and could not lawfully continue its labours;

Conſidering, finally, that the imperious duty of the government is to prevent internal diſſenſions and all the evils of anarchy, decrees:

Art. 1. The aſſembly, ſitting at Berne, under the name of the Helvetic diet, is declared diſſolved, and its proceedings are conſidered as null and void.

2. The conſtitution, publiſhed on the 29th of May, 1801, ſhall, from the preſent moment, be put in execution, as far as regards the organization of the central authorities.

3. There ſhall be appointed, from the legiſlative body, a commiſſion of five members, charged with propoſing, during the preſent ſitting, a liſt of twenty-five members, to form the ſenate.

The legiſlative body ſhall proceed immediately to the nominations.

4. As ſoon as the majority of it is aſſembled, the ſenate ſhall enter upon its functions, and from that moment the proviſional authority of the government ſhall ceaſe.

5. The ſenate ſhall exerciſe the attributes and power delegated to it by the conſtitution.

6. It is eſpecially charged with making all the neceſſary diſpoſitions for the convocation of the conſtitutional diet, which ſhall aſſemble in three months at the lateſt.

7. The ſenate is beſides charged with preparing for that diet a ſtatement of the ameliorations of which the conſtitution is ſuſceptible, as well as the organic laws, neceſſary to its being put in activity.

8. It

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8. It shall ascertain the wishes expressed in favour of such and such a change to be made in the division of territory, and shall make a report to the diet.

9. It is finally charged with examining plans of cantonal organization, and making a report to the diet. Until the diet has approved and registered them, the authorities existing at present in the cantons shall continue their functions.

10. Independently of the beforementioned labours, the senate shall give an account to the diet of the state of the republic, and of the manner in which it has governed from its installation to the period of making such an account.

11. The diet shall have the right of confirming the senate, or of proceeding to a new election.

President of the legislative council,

(Signed) Marcacci.

Letter written by the Deputies of the small Cantons to the First Consul, when they withdrew from the Helvetic Diet.

Berne, Nov. 1, 1801.

Citizen first consul,

Deprived of all resources, the three cantons of the Helvetic confederacy, Uri, Schweitz, and Unterwald, feel too strongly the absolute necessity of a constitution, founded on the simplicity and economy of their ancestors, not to signify to you the ardent desire which they have of preserving, as much as possible, that which the fathers of liberty have founded, and which, during nearly five hundred years, has constituted the happiness of their children. Europe knows with what firmness, and with what devotion, out of all proportion to their strength, the descendants of Tell have struggled for its preservation; and the virtue of a Bonaparte cannot refuse to them a mark of esteem which renders them still more courageous.

The envy and ambition of some individuals, unworthy the name of Swiss, unfortunately seem too much to influence the French government, and we are the unhappy victim of their despicable adherents. But scarcely, great consul, had you marked out the path of happiness to the French, than you deigned to cast an eye of compassion on us; you wished to re-establish both our limits and our happiness; but the same passions which have caused our ruin, still labour to confirm it.

We wish to follow your views, and reunite ourselves to Helvetia, even with some sacrifices; but our deceitful brethren desire a restoration of powers which would degenerate into despotism, and reduce us to the condition of slaves.

The diversity of worship, manners, education, customs, wants, and many other circumstances, render an uniformity of administration impossible, and the attempt could not fail totally to destroy us. It is absolutely necessary that our boundaries should be marked, and that we should have a particular administration, in order to maintain the purity of our religion and morals, and to re-establish that economy which is so necessary to our political prosperity. This is the general wish of the people of Uri, of Schweitz, and of Unterwald, who make it known to us in a request,

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queſt, ſigned by 3600 citizens out of 3800, which this laſt canton contains. Citizen firſt conſul, one word from you would render impotent theſe ambitious individuals, who have influence only in proportion as they impreſs the idea that they are ſupported by France. We requeſt this word with confidence, perſuaded that it can neither be your intention, nor for the intereſt of France, to increaſe the misfortunes of a people who have already ſuffered ſo much, and who deſire only tranquillity and repoſe.

Proces Verbal of the taking Poſſeſſion of the Sovereignty of Tuſcany, made in the Name of his Majeſty the King of Etruria, by his Excellency the Count Cæſar Ventura, Marquis de Galinella, Knight of the Grand Croſs of the Royal Order of Charles III. Gentleman in Waiting, and Member of the Privy Council of his Royal Highneſs the Infant Duke of Parma, Plenipotentiary of his Majeſty.

THE miniſter plenipotentiary, M. the count Cæſar Ventura, general Murat, and M. Agar, the commiſſary, having conſulted about the ceremonial of taking poſſeſſion, the morning of the 2d of Auguſt was choſen for that grand ceremony.

At ſeven in the morning, the great clock in the old palace, which is uſed for indicating great feſtivals and galas, announced the ſolemn act which was to take place.

A detachment of two hundred grenadiers, with their officers, and drums beating, made their appearance at nine o'clock. They were immediately diſtributed to the poſts aſſigned them.

His excellency the general in chief, Murat, arrived with his ſtaff at eleven, and was received at the gate of the old palace by the marquis Fabio Fearoni, and the marquis Giovani Gerini, who accompanied him to what is called the ſaloon *des Deux Cents*, where an alcove was erected for him and his etat major till the beginning of the ceremony.

The wife of the general, and the widow of the deceaſed Spaniſh miniſter, the chevalier Quineres, came together. They were received at the gates of the palace by the prior, chevalier G. Baptiſt a Griſoni, deputed from his corps, and who accompanied them to the ſeats appointed for them.

His excellency the miniſter plenipotentiary, the marquis count Cæſar Ventura, came immediately afterwards, with ſeven knights, and went to receive four ſenators, who accompanied him to the grand ſaloon.

The plenipotentiary and the general in chief entered the ſaloon at the ſame time through different paſſages, receiving the ordinary ſalute from the militia. Their march was ſo concerted, that they arrived at the ſame time before the throne, ſo that neither ſhould have the precedency.

In the mean while, the ſenate, the civil magiſtracy, and the other miniſters who were to aſſiſt at the ceremony, took the places aſſigned them. The miniſter plenipotentiary, and the commander in chief, alſo took their ſeats.

Every one being ſeated, a moſt profound ſilence took place in the ſaloon,

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ſalon, where there were not leſs than two thouſand five hundred perſons of different orders of the ſtate. The firſt miniſter began the ceremony: the notary of ſtate, the doctor Franciſco Gonella, made a very long ſpeech, in which he praiſed the wiſe meaſures taken by the French republic, and the qualities of the firſt conſul Bonaparte, to whoſe genius the continent of Europe was taught to look for peace. He added, that, by the happy concurrence of his meaſures with thoſe of his imperial majeſty, peace was ſigned at Luneville. He then read the whole of the 5th article of the treaty; after which the miniſter plenipotentiary alſo read the proclamation of the 26th of July, by which his majeſty, Louis I. announced himſelf, in virtue of that article and poſterior regulations, to the Tuſcans, as the new king of Etruria, and charged the marquis count Cæſar Ventura to receive, as his plenipotentiary, the uſual oath of fidelity and obedience.

The royal advocate, Thomas Magnami, *ad interim*, then ſtood up, who acted as director of the informations, and who, in that capacity, invited, in an elegant ſpeech, the ſenate, and the civic magiſtracy, to take the oath of fidelity and obedience to their new ſovereign, whoſe rare and well-known qualities could alone compenſate for the ſovereign they had loſt.

The ſenator, lieutenant count Roland del Benino, next roſe, and made a ſuitable anſwer to this ſpeech. He expatiated equally on the greatneſs of the boon which Tuſcany had received, and the confident expectations entertained that the known qualities of the new king would compenſate for the loſs of the prince whom he ſucceeded. He concluded with adhering to the treaty of Luneville, and the arrangements which it made. He then, as well as the whole ſenate, in the name of the Tuſcan nation, ſwore to Louis I. the ſame fidelity and obedience which they obſerved towards his predeceſſors.

After this ſpeech, the ſenators and the elders of the civic community, each according to his reſpective order, advanced to the foot of the throne, where, after ſaluting the portrait of his majeſty, the miniſter plenipotentiary and the general in chief took the oath, laying the right hand on that part of the holy goſpel which contained the eccleſiaſtical ceremony of the equeſtrian order of St. Stephen. When all of them had returned to their reſpective poſts, the notary of ſtate read, in a loud tone of voice, the ſolemn inſtrument of the oath, naming loudly the ſeven perſonages who aſſiſted as witneſſes, and prayed to Heaven for the proſperity and preſervation of the new king, Louis I. The happy inauguration was reſounded by univerſal plaudits, and the ſhouts of *Evviva!* with which the new king was proclaimed by this numerous aſſembly.

Thus ended this auguſt ceremony, during which, every time that mention was made either of the French republic or the royal perſonages, the miniſter plenipotentiary and the general in chief took off their hats at a ſignal made to them by Joſeph Corſi, the maſter of the ceremonies, and according to what was before agreed upon.

The diſcharge of cannon accompanied this ſolemn pomp, and at the cloſe of it, the miniſter plenipotentiary and the general in chief withdrew,

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drew, observing the same ceremony as on their arrival.

The first minister of reform and notary of state,
(Signed) D. Francisco Gonella.

The master of the ceremonies,
(Signed) G. Corsi.

Florence, Aug. 4, 1801.

Proclamation, published at Florence previous to the Coronation of the King of Etruria.

Louis I. by the grace of God, infant of Spain, king of Etruria.

IN consequence of the solemn treaty concluded and signed at Luneville, on the 8th of February last, and the conventions which followed it, we, called to the august throne of Tuscany, charge the marquis de Gallinella, and count Cæsar Ventura, grand cross of the royal order of Charles III. gentlemen of the chamber in waiting, and privy counsellor of his royal highness the infant of Parma, to take possession in our royal name, and in quality of our plenipotentiary, of the kingdom of Tuscany; and to receive to that effect the homage and oaths of inauguration in the accustomed forms, and the usages heretofore observed upon similar occasions.

We desire that the said marquis Cæsar Ventura be received as aforesaid, in quality of our plenipotentiary, until our arrival.

We confirm, until new orders shall be issued to the contrary, all the laws, decrees, and customs, heretofore maintained; as also the actual provisional government, the individuals who compose it, together with the governor, provisional commissary, the judges and tribunals of justice, and all other persons now employed in the civil, military, and financial departments. We charge the said provisional government to give orders and take care that our present regulations be carried into effect.

Given at Parma, the 26th of July, 1801.
(Signed) Louis.
A true copy.
(Signed) General Murat.

Letter from the King of Etruria to the King of Prussia.

Sir, brother, and cousin,

AS in consequence of the treaty concluded and signed at Luneville, on the 9th of February, of the present year, and of subsequent conventions, the sovereignty of the kingdom of Etruria has been conferred upon me: I have repaired to these my states, where I have considered it as one of the first duties of my government to inform your majesty of my arrival, and communicate to you the most sincere assurances of my firm resolution to imitate with the utmost zeal the example of my predecessors, by promoting, to the utmost of my power, every thing which may tend to the service of your majesty, and the advantage of your subjects. I flatter myself that your majesty will receive graciously these professions of my high esteem, and honour me with the same favour and friendship which my predecessors have received. In this hope, and trusting that the Tuscan nation will be honoured with the same good will

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will and protection as the ſubjects of your majeſty.

I remain,
With the higheſt eſteem,
Sir, brother, and couſin,
Your majeſty's affectionate brother,
ſervant, and couſin,
Louis.

Florence, Aug. 27, 1801.

Anſwer of the King of Pruſſia.

Sir, brother, and couſin,

Before I received the letter of the date of the 27th of Auguſt, which it has pleaſed your majeſty to tranſmit to me, I was informed, by a communication from the firſt conſul of the French republic, and the king of Spain, of the new dignity which is connected with the ſovereignty of Tuſcany, and I did myſelf the pleaſure to teſtify my friendſhip and eſteem for your perſonal qualities, by immediately complying with your wiſh, by acknowledging your new dignity. Nothing remains for me but to congratulate your majeſty on your acceſſion to the throne and government, which has been allotted to you by the treaty of Luneville; and, at the ſame time, to expreſs my ſincere wiſhes for the prolongation of your life, the proſperity of your government, and the happineſs of the people committed to your care. Gratified with the proof of confidence and friendſhip which you have given me, I entreat you to be convinced that I ſhall with pleaſure avail myſelf of every opportunity to expreſs the perfect reciprocity of my ſentiments towards you, and aſſure you that I ſhall always be ready to render you every ſervice as far as may depend upon me. To theſe ſincere declarations I add the aſſurance of the high eſteem with which I am,

Sir, brother, and couſin,
Your majeſty's good brother,
and couſin,
(Signed) Frederick William.

Proclamation publiſhed at Leghorn, September 1, 1801.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, infant of Spain, king of Tuſcany, and hereditary prince of Parma, Placentia, Guaſtalla, &c.

The ſatisfaction which we have experienced in taking into our hands the reins of the ſtate, is in ſome degree troubled, by learning that the late political changes have left in ſome of our dearly beloved ſubjects the ſeeds of diviſion. It is our will that the commencement of our reign ſhould be ſignalized by the deciſive reſolution of granting a perpetual amneſty with reſpect to every cauſe of reciprocal diſtruſt. Where the law is the ſame and equally adminiſtered for all, where the government acts in conformity to that law, parties neither are nor ſhould be known.

Attachment to the government, ſubmiſſion to the laws, and reſpect for the magiſtrates, are the eſſential duties of ſubjects. If in the conflict of paſt events, ſome have neglected theſe duties, they are not therefore the leſs ſacred and agreeable to the hearts of Tuſcans. Let thoſe who may have deviated from the exerciſe of principles ſo juſt, inſtantly reſume the practice of loyalty and virtue! A vigilant ſyſtem of politics and impartial juſtice ſhall puniſh thoſe who may be guilty of violating the laws, or treating with contempt the conſtituted authorities.

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To extinguish the spirit of discord, and prevent the repetition of odious appellations, shall be the constant care of the magistrates.

We trust that these maxims, which emanate from our heart, and which shall uniformly guide us in the exercise of our power, will, by their general diffusion, consolidate that desirable union, and that unanimity of virtuous sentiments, that have ever constituted the dignity and the happiness of this illustrious nation.

Substance of the Treaty of Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, concluded between Sweden and Russia, at Petersburgh, on the 1st (13th) of March, and ratified at Landskrona on the 11th of April, and at St. Petersburgh on the 30th of May (11th June), 1801.

ART. I. There shall be a durable peace and true friendship between the two realms, and their subjects shall mutually assist each other, particularly in transactions of commerce and navigation.

II. III. The Swedes shall enjoy full liberty of commerce in Russia, and the Russians in Sweden, and similar protection with the subjects of the two countries; but they shall not deal in goods, the importation and exportation of which are prohibited.

IV. In order to obviate any inconveniences that might arise from an undefined extension of this liberty of commerce, both parties have agreed to limit it to all the ports of the two states, without distinction; and, as to the commerce in the country, to certain places on the frontiers of the Russian and Swedish parts of Finland. In these frontier places, the subjects of the two powers, without going farther into the country, may carry on a wholesale, but not retail trade, and traffick with such merchants as arrive there from remote districts. Travelling merchants and hawkers of both nations shall not be suffered, but considered as smugglers.

V. — VII. The subjects of both powers shall pay the same importation and exportation duties on goods, and in the same coin, as the natives of the country to which they trade. They shall likewise enjoy all legal protection, the free exercise of their religion, and the right of leaving the country with their property.

VIII. The merchants of both nations may keep their books in what language they please, and never shall be forced to produce them, excepting in lawsuits, and then only such extracts as are absolutely necessary for clearing up the point contested.

IX. X. In case of bankruptcy or differences, the subjects of either power shall be treated agreeably to the laws of the country in which they then reside. If the subject of one power dies in the country of the other, without heirs, his property shall, within the space of five years, belong to the government of the country in which he died, if, after a proclamation inserted in the newspapers three times, no heir should apply.

XI. — XIII. The respective consuls-general and consuls shall be under the particular protection of the laws, and enjoy the same rights and liberties as those of the most favoured nations. Sailors who have deserted, shall be delivered up by both parties even in foreign ports. Merchant-vessels shall, on no account, take

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take paſſengers without paſſports, or goods without proper certificates. With reſpect to contraband, and the puniſhment of perſons importing it, the laws of the two countries ſhall decide.

XIV. Swediſh alum, ſalt herrings, and ſalt, imported from Sweden into Ruſſia (Peterſburgh excepted), ſhall pay only one-half of the duties mentioned in the regulations of the cuſtoms; and ſmoked herrings imported from Sweden, only one third.

XV. All the produce of Swediſh Finland, even wood, may be imported into Ruſſian Finland (which had hitherto not been the caſe) free from all duties; and the wood from Swediſh Finland may be exported from Wiburg and Fridrickſham.

XVII. Hemp, linen, and tallow, imported into Sweden from Ruſſia, ſhall only pay one-half, and linſeed two-thirds of the duties hitherto paid. The Ruſſians ſhall remain in poſſeſſion of their ſtorehouſes at Stockholm, the limits of which are to be enlarged.

XVIII. XIX. Contain regulations for preventing Ruſſians and Swedes navigating foreign ſhips and goods as their own.

XX. XXI. Not more than four ſhips of war of one power ſhall enter the fortified ports of the other at one time, if ſpecial permiſſion has not been granted for a greater number. Ships of war as well as merchant-veſſels, that have ſuffered by ſtorms and other accidents, may be repaired in the ports of the other power.

XXII. XXIII. If ſhips of war of the two powers, the commanders of which are of the ſame rank, meet at ſea, no ſaluting ſhall take place; the commander of inferior rank, however, ſhall ſalute the commander of higher rank, who ſhall return the ſalute, ſhot for ſhot. Ships that have ſtranded ſhall receive all poſſible aſſiſtance.

XXIV. If one of the contracting parties happens to be at war with other ſtates, the ſubjects of the other party ſhall not, on that account, be prevented from continuing their commerce and navigation with thoſe ſtates, on condition that they do not ſupply theſe ſtates with contraband. Convinced of the principles laid down in the convention concluded at St. Peterſburgh, on the 16th of December, laſt year, for the general good of trading nations, the two crowns declare that they make it the undeviable rule of their conduct. They farther declare, that they acknowledge the following principles: 1ſt, That neutral ſhips may freely ſail for the ports and coaſts of the belligerent powers.—2d, That, with exception of warlike contraband, the goods of ſubjects of the belligerent powers in neutral bottoms are free.—3d, That ſuch ports only are to be conſidered as blockaded, where, from the proximity of ſhips of war, there ſhall actually be danger in entering.—4th, The neutral veſſels can be detained only on juſt grounds, and evident facts.—5th, That no convoy ſhall be ſearched, when the commander of the ſhip of war convoying them declares that there is no contraband on board.

XXV.—XXVII. In time of war, one power may ſhut its ports againſt the privateers and prizes of the other that is engaged in war. The following articles only are declared to be contraband, viz. guns, mortars, firelocks, piſtols, bombs, grenades, balls, muſkets, flints, matches, powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, cuiraſſes, pikes, ſword-belts, cartridges-boxes,

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ſaddles, and bridles. All other goods, in neutral bottoms, are to be conſidered as neutral property.

XXVIII. The power engaged in war ſhall grant leave for fitting out privateers to ſuch of its ſubjects only as reſide in the country, and are able to find ſecurity for the damage they may do to neutral veſſels.

XXIX. If either of the two powers ſhould be at war with another ſtate, its ſhips of war and privateers ſhall be allowed to ſearch ſuch merchant-ſhips of the other power as are not under convoy; but only two or three men ſhall be ſent on board, to inveſtigate the legality and neutrality of the cargo.

XXX. If any ſuch ſhip ſhould have contraband on board, that only, and nothing elſe, ſhall be taken and confiſcated.

XXXII. XXXIII. If one of the powers is carrying on war, the ſubjects of the other ſhall enjoy, in the country of ſuch power, all liberty and ſecurity as before, and its men and ſhips ſhall not be employed in military ſervices. In caſes of bankruptcy of the ſubjects of either country, truſtees of the eſtate ſhall be appointed.

XXXIV. If a war ſhould break out between the two powers, the ſpace of a twelvemonth, from the date of the declaration of war, ſhall be allowed to their reſpective trading ſubjects, for withdrawing their property from the country of the other.

XXXV. XXXVI. The preſent treaty is concluded for twelve years, and ſigned by

Count Stedingk,
Prince Kurakin,
Count Von der Pahlen,
And prince Saguzin.

[Here follow the ratifications of Guſtavus Adolphus, and Alexander I.]

Note preſented by Count Kalitcheff at Paris.

THE underſigned haſtens to communicate to citizen Talleyrand the commands he has juſt received from his court.

His majeſty the emperor of all the Ruſſias, relying upon the chief conſul's love of juſtice, by which he has obtained ſo great and ſo merited a reputation, entertains the hope, that he will fulfil the engagements into which he had entered with the late emperor, not to inſiſt upon the hard conditions to which the king of Naples had been obliged to ſubmit. The underſigned thinks it his duty to remind citizen Talleyrand that the admiſſion of the five articles, preſented to the French government by way of anſwer to its preſſing repreſentations for opening a negotiation with Ruſſia, was the only motive for ſending the underſigned to Paris. The new inſtructions direct him to inſiſt, that the ſaid five articles, which had been agreed upon as the baſis of the negotiation, ſhould receive their ſpeedy execution. By theſe articles the two powers agreed that the king of the two Sicilies, and the king of Sardinia, ſhould be again put in poſſeſſion of the reſpective ſtates which they poſſeſſed before the irruption of the French troops into Italy. Citizen Talleyrand, miniſter of foreign affairs, has been authorized repeatedly to give the aſſurance, that the five articles were agreed to, and that they would be carried into effect.

As,

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As, however, it has been ſeen, that by force of arms the king of Naples has been compelled to agree to other terms; and as, in defiance of the moſt ſolemn promiſes to conclude a definitive peace with the king of Sardinia, by which he was again to be eſtabliſhed in his dominions, it is evident that the latter is excluded from his territories, there is every reaſon to ſuſpect and believe, that unforeſeen circumſtances have changed the intentions of the French government, and inſpired it with other views and intentions, repugnant to the above articles and meaſures which had been taken with his majeſty.

The underſigned is commanded to repreſent to citizen Talleyrand, that without poſitive certainty of the five articles alluded to being carried into effect, and which were aceeded to by the French government as preliminaries, there can be no reſtoration of harmony between the two countries; and he therefore declares, that neither the armiſtice of Foligno, nor the conditions which in the firſt inſtance were preſented to the marquis de Gallo, and which afterwards, on the refuſal of the latter to agree to them, were tranſmitted to general Murat, to be ſigned by the chevalier Micheroux, can ever be acknowledged by the emperor, and that they muſt ever be conſidered as directly inconſiſtent with the promiſes made by the chief conſul.

This is the ſubſtance of the commands which the underſigned has received, and which he has been directed to communicate to the French government. He muſt alſo add, that the views which the chief conſul announced, and his moderation, which was held out as directed to promote a general peace, were the only grounds on which all Europe entertained the hope that the moment of that peace was at no great diſtance; that it would be permitted to look forward to the future with tranquillity; and that the ſyſtem of robbery taken up by the directory no longer exiſted. Theſe were the only reaſons that induced his majeſty the emperor to ſend a plenipotentiary to Paris, and through whom it was expected that the relations of amity with the French government would be reſtored. The underſigned flattered himſelf that the chief conſul in his wiſdom would conſider that his fame is concerned in fulfilling the promiſes he had made, and the hopes he had raiſed, as it will depend upon him, by the re-eſtabliſhment of a general peace, to give repoſe to all Europe. He therefore requeſts citizen Talleyrand to make known the contents of this note to the chief conſul, and, as ſoon as poſſible, to communicate to the underſigned the reſolution which the French government ſhall adopt.

The underſigned takes this opportunity, &c.

(Signed) Kalitcheff.

Second Note preſented by Count Kalitcheff, on the 1ſt of May.

The underſigned reminds citizen Talleyrand that he has yet received no anſwer reſpecting the objects on which he had the honour, by command of the emperor, his maſter, to addreſs him; and therefore he begs him to notify to the underſigned, whether the French government, agreeably to the admiſſion of the five preliminary articles, intends to keep

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its promise concerning the integrity of the kingdom of the two Sicilies, and the re-establishment of the king of Sardinia in his dominions, as they were previous to the arrival of the French troops in Italy. The undersigned considers it unnecessary to make any farther observations respecting this affair, which has already been sufficiently discussed; and he hopes that citizen Talleyrand will lay before the chief consul the contents of the present note, and that he will communicate to him his resolutions agreeably thereto.

(Signed) Kalitcheff.

Answer delivered by the First Consul to the note presented to him by M. Kalitcheff.

The first consul of the French republic acknowledges the receipt of the convention of Petersburgh of the 16th of June, and takes this opportunity to assure his imperial majesty of the lasting good disposition and sentiments of the French government towards his majesty's person and government; and assures him, that he will do every thing that may be pleasing and agreeable to the court of Russia; and that this end would have been attained sooner, if the negociations with England, the situation of affairs in Italy and Egypt, and the war with Portugal, had not thrown certain invincible obstacles in the way of the business.

Circular Letter, dated 19th June, 1801, sent by the Russian Government to all its diplomatic Ministers and Agents, for the Regulation of their Conduct with regard to the foreign French Ministers and Ambassadors.

Circular, &c.

ALL the relations of policy, commerce, and correspondence with France, which were interrupted, and, in consequence of the revolution in that country, have not yet been re-established in their full extent; but as at the present moment negotiations are going on to effect a reconciliation with that power, by every means consistent with the dignity of the emperor, and the interests of his people; his majesty has been pleased to charge his ministers to apprize his foreign ambassadors and agents that he is willing to renew the usual course of connexion with that government, and that the conferences respecting that object are in full activity.

In the situation in which this matter stands, therefore, it is no longer proper that the ambassadors of his imperial majesty should continue to observe any distance towards the ambassadors of the French government. It is therefore enjoined you, sir, on all occasions, to testify the ordinary and becoming respect for them which is usual between the ministers of powers that are in good understanding with each other, and to communicate with them on all occasions in which the interest of our most gracious sovereign may be concerned. I am, &c.

(Signed) The prince A. Kurakin.

Circular Letter, sent at the same Time, respecting the Agents of the Batavian Republic.

Circular,

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Circular, &c.

As the emperor on his acceſſion to the throne found that the Batavian republic was recogniſed, and that a miniſter from the ſame had been accredited by the emperor his father, his majeſty has thought it his duty not to innovate in the leaſt upon their proceedings. As this reſolution of the emperor, however, removes all the reaſons of hoſtility, and the grounds of farther interruption of correſpondence between the two governments, you are therefore directed to communicate with the miniſters of the ſaid republic, who reſide where you are, reſpecting every object of policy, commerce, or other relation, in which the intereſt of the ſervice of the emperor your maſter is concerned.

I am, &c.

(Signed) The prince A. Kurakin.

Declaration of the Emperor of Ruſſia, relative to Britiſh Property under Sequeſtration, annexed to the Convention of the 5th of June, 1801.

ALTHOUGH the magnanimous intention of his imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias to do full and entire juſtice to thoſe Britiſh ſubjects who have ſuffered loſſes during the troubles which have diſturbed the good intelligence between his empire and Great Britain, be already proved by facts, his imperial majeſty, conſulting ſolely his good faith, has moreover authorized the underſigned plenipotentiary to declare, as he does declare by theſe preſents:

"That all the ſhips, the merchandiſe, and the property of Britiſh ſubjects, which had been ſequeſtrated during the laſt reign in Ruſſia, ſhall not only be faithfully reſtored to the ſaid Britiſh ſubjects, or to their agents, but alſo that for the effects which may have been alienated in ſuch a manner as to render it impoſſible for them to be reſtored in kind, a ſuitable equivalent ſhall be granted to the proprietors, which equivalent ſhall be hereafter determined according to the rules of equity."

In faith of which we, plenipotentiary of his imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias, have ſigned the preſent declaration, and have cauſed the ſeal of our arms to be affixed thereto.

Done at St. Peterſburgh, 5-17 June, one thouſand eight hundred and one.

(L. S.) N. Cte. de Panin.

Ruſſian Ukaſe of the 7th February, 1801, *for the Union of Gurgiſtan, otherwiſe Georgia, with Ruſſia.*

BY the grace of God, we Paul the firſt, emperor and ſovereign of all the Ruſſias, &c.

For many years paſt Gurgiſtan, tormented by neighbours of a different religion, and exhauſted by a continually defenſive poſture, has felt the inevitable conſequences of a war always unfavourable. The diviſion which has taken place in the midſt of that war, in the royal family, has added to the calamities of that ſtate, and threatened to complete its ruin. The king of Georgia, Heraclieus, ſeeing the end of his days approach, the principal perſons of his court, and the people themſelves of Gurgiſtan, have this day implored our protection, and ſeeing no other means of avoiding their ruin and ſervitude, have ſent

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plenipotentiaries from Gurgiſtan to pray us to receive them under the immediate dominion of the imperial throne of all the Ruſſias. Liſtening to this prayer, with the kindneſs natural to us for all thoſe of our religion, and with the intereſt which we have always felt for whatever concerned the Georgian nation, we have determined to gratify the wiſh of prince Heraclus, and that of the people of Gurgiſtan.

In conſequence, as much to ſecure the internal tranquillity of that ſtate as to protect it againſt attacks from without, we have ordered that our armies ſhall occupy Georgia, and we give beſides our imperial word, that immediately after its definitive union to the ſtates of our dominion, not only all the rights, privileges, and properties, of all and every of our new ſubjects in Georgia, and the provinces thereunto belonging, ſhall be maintained and preſerved; but farther, that from that æra the inhabitants of theſe new provinces ſhall enjoy all the rights, privileges, and advantages which the old Ruſſian ſubjects enjoy by the favour of our anceſtors, by our own, and under our protection. Moreover, we expect from theſe new ſubjects and their poſterity, inviolable fidelity to us and our ſucceſſors, and an unlimited devotion to the intereſt of our empire.

(Signed) Paul.

Edict of the King of Naples, dated Palermo, the 18th February, 1801, (21 Pluvioſe) and publiſhed the 17th of ſame Month, at Naples.

FERDINAND IV. by the grace of God, king of the Two Sicilies, of Jeruſalem, &c. infant of Spain, duke of Parma, Placenza, &c. hereditary grand prince of Tuſcany, &c. &c.

Upon the happy occaſion of the arrival at Naples of our beloved ſon, the hereditary prince royal, we have been informed, with certainty, of the good order that prevails in that kingdom, and of the public tranquillity re-eſtabliſhed there, as alſo of the amendment of that unfortunate claſs of our ſubjects, who, in the paſt circumſtances, fell into the moſt guilty exceſſes; and we have alſo learned, with the ſatisfaction of our royal heart, the tranſports of joy, and the attachment to our royal perſon, manifeſted upon the above-mentioned occaſion by the individuals of all claſſes, and even by the moſt near relatives of thoſe who, for their crimes, have been already condemned or driven from our royal dominions.

In conſideration of theſe accounts, underſtanding that the meaſures of ſeverity and juſtice which we have been obliged to take, when public order was diſturbed, and the ſocial body in diſorder, are no longer neceſſary for the ſafety of the ſtate, we have thought that, without wounding the laws, we might follow the movements of our heart, in gratifying the anxious wiſh which we have long conceived.

After having publiſhed, in the month of May, of laſt year, an *indult*, by which we have granted our royal indulgence to ſeveral of thoſe who had committed ſtate crimes, and after having ſubſequently ſhown our ſovereign intention to reſtrain the too extenſive number of perſons excepted by that *indult*, in giving for that purpoſe the neceſſary orders to the junto of ſtate, to that of the generals, and to viſitors, we have reſolved

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resolved this day to mark the happy circumstance of the return into that realm of our said royal son, and to second the desire which he has expressed to us of giving a greater extent to the effects of our sovereign clemency. For this purpose we ordain,

1st, That all those who for state crimes, committed in the past calamities of the kingdom, and up to the *indult* of the 30th of May, of last year, are detained in the prisons, castles, and islands of the said kingdom of Naples, shall be set at liberty, and exempted from the corporal punishments to which they are subject.

2dly, As, to hasten the trial of state causes, we have prescribed, by a dispatch of the 7th September, 1799, the manner in which they ought to be conducted, and particularly the *truglio*, or *condamnation par provision*, as it is practised in the criminal tribunals of Sicily; and as all the persons condemned by the procedure of *truglio* have been, for the most part, banished from our royal dominions, we will that the same should be enabled to return into our kingdom, when they shall be provided with legitimate passports for that purpose, and that their persons shall not be molested in any manner.

3dly, That the persons in custody shall be set at liberty; and the said banished, who shall return into the kingdom, shall be treated and acknowledged by the whole realm as faithful subjects.

4thly, It having come to our sovereign knowledge, that among those who have been set at liberty, by virtue of the *indult*, published the 30th May, of last year, there are several, who, in the fervour of anarchy, and in the disorder of the times, were shut up without their having committed any offence, in prisons, and who now demand their justification, we reserve to ourselves to have the conduct of these persons examined by way of informations.

5thly, The firm confidence which we have in the steady fidelity, for the future, of our dearest subjects, gives us to know at this day, that the existence of the junto of state, established by us in the capital, is no longer necessary. We declare, in consequence, that it is abolished; we revoke at the same time the delegation granted for matters of state, to the junto of generals, to the provincial visitors and audiences. And finally, that there may not be wanting in the kingdom a magistrate to watch over the internal safety of the state, against any attempt upon its tranquillity, we reserve to ourselves to establish one in the same form that was practised in the most tranquil times of the august Charles III. our father.

And that our paternal and royal kindness may have its full effect, and be known to all the world, we will and ordain, that it shall be published in our kingdom of Naples, in the usual places of the capital and the provinces, being signed by us, and corroborated by the seal of our royal arms, recognised by our ministers of state, with the *visa* of our vice prothonatory, confirmed by the secretary of our royal chamber of Sainte-Claire.

Given at Palermo, the 10th February, 1801.

(Signed) Ferdinand.

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Proclamation of the King of Spain againſt Portugal.

SINCE I happily concluded a peace with the French republic, my principal care was to procure the ſame advantage to other powers, particularly thoſe which were connected with me by the ties of blood. The republic has been pleaſed to accept of my good offices for ſome, and my mediation for others. Since that period I made many attempts to procure for Portugal ſuch an advantageous peace as would place it in a ſtate of ſecurity. With this object, I looked only to the happineſs of Portugal: my intention was to ſeparate it from England, to which, by its maritime ſituation, it afforded great advantages; and by theſe means to force the latter, if poſſible, to a peace, ſo much wiſhed for by all Europe, and which that power alone oppoſes. My reiterated advice was employed to overcome the repugnance of the Portugueſe court, influenced by that of London, was intended to induce it to enter into negotiations with the republic. Its plenipotentiary ſigned at Paris, in 1797, a treaty more advantageous to it than the reſpective ſituations of the two powers gave it reaſon to expect. In the mean time, England, ſeeing that it would ſnatch from it one of the moſt uſeful inſtruments of its ambitious views, redoubled its efforts; and, amuſing the credulity of that cabinet by chimerical ideas of aggrandiſement, made it take the ſtrange reſolution of refuſing to ratify that treaty, thus fruſtrating all my hopes, and what would have been done by my potent intervention.

Since that time, the conduct of that government has aſſumed a character more audacious; and, not contented with affording England, my enemy, all the means in its power of annoying me, as well as my ally, the French republic, it has proceeded to the extravagant length of doing injury to my ſubjects, and failing in that reſpect due to me, by its obſtinate reſiſtance to my advice.

Thus does Europe behold, with ſcandal, a ſecure aſylum offered in the ports of Portugal to the ſquadrons of the enemy, from which they are enabled to purſue, with advantage, hoſtilities againſt my veſſels, and thoſe of my ally, the French republic.

We have ſeen Portugueſe mixed with Engliſh ſhips, forming a part of their fleets, facilitating their proviſioning and their tranſports, and partaking in all thoſe acts of hoſility which the Engliſh commit againſt me: we have ſeen their naval crews and their marine officers inſult the French even in the port of Carthagena: Portugal authorized it by its refuſal to give ſuitable ſatisfaction, and by committing, at Ferrol, ſimilar exceſſes againſt my ſubjects. The ports of Portugal are the public market of the Spaniſh and French prizes, made upon its coaſts, and in the ſight of its fortreſſes, by the ſquadrons of the enemy; while its admiralty releaſes the prizes taken and led into the ſame ports by my ſubjects. My ſhips have never found a good reception in theſe ports. In the river Guadiana, the Portugueſe ſoldiers committed the moſt violent exceſſes againſt my peaceful ſubjects. They attacked and fired on them, as if they were in a ſtate of open war, without the Portugueſe government attempting to give any ſatisfaction; in a word,

Portugal,

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Portugal, under the appearance of friendſhip, has conſtantly acted againſt my kingdoms in Europe and in the Indies; and the evidence of its conduct muſt render unneceſſary the recital of the numerous facts which might be alleged in ſupport of theſe charges. What conduct had I to obſerve in the midſt of ſo many outrages? The French republic, juſtly irritated againſt Portugal, is deſirous of inflicting a juſt vengeance upon it, and its victorious arms would have long ſince ſpread deſolation through its provinces, if my fraternal affection for the moſt faithful queen and her auguſt children had not ſuſpended the blow with which it was threatened by my ally the republic. My mediation has always prevented the progreſs of the French. My paternal care for theſe provinces making me forget all preceding grievances, and all the freſh ones which I had to complain of, induced me to endeavour to divert the ſucceſſes of the French armies, and to obtain an advantageous peace. I ſtrongly repreſented to the court of Portugal the dangers to which it expoſed itſelf, in the openneſs of my heart; I employed the moſt engaging language of paternal tenderneſs and friendſhip, to induce its determination.

The obſtinacy of Portugal ſoon obliged me to uſe harſher language. I tried by rational advice, by menaces of my wrath, and by reſpectable channels of expoſtulation, to recall it to its duties. The court of Portugal, however, deaf to all I could ſay, only ſought to gain time by vain promiſes, ſeveral times ſending plenipotentiaries without powers, or with limited powers, and uſing all thoſe methods of delay, and all thoſe ſubterfuges, dictated by a fallacious and verſatile policy. The blindneſs of the prince regent has gone ſo far as to name his ally, the king of Great Britain, in a letter which he addreſſed to me, forgetful of what is due to the conſanguinity which unites us; to the reſpect that is due to me; and giving the name of alliance to what is no more than the abuſe of that aſcendency which England has arrogated over his country.

Having thus exhauſted all the means of conciliation, after having perfectly ſatisfied all the claims of kindred and of attachment to the prince of Portugal; convinced of the inability of my endeavours; ſeeing that the prince regent evaded the royal promiſe which he had ſo often made in favour of peace, in various circumſtances; and, in complaiſance to England, my enemy, abuſed thoſe promiſes which I made to France; I have determined that a longer toleration on my part would be injurious to the welfare of my people, and my ſubjects attacked in their rights and property by an unjuſt aggreſſor; that it would be forgetting the dignity of my rank toward a prince who was willing to forego thoſe ties of blood which connected him with me; that it would be a want of fidelity towards my ally, the French republic, which ſuſpended its vengeance out of its regard for me; and, in fine, that it would be in oppoſition to thoſe principles of ſound policy which direct my operations as a ſovereign.

Nevertheleſs, before taking the painful reſolution of war, I wiſhed to renew, for the laſt time, my propoſitions to her moſt faithful majeſty. I have ordered my ambaſſador, the duke de Fryas, that in reſpect to delays of the negotiations, he ſhould explain to her the inconvenience and injuſtice of her conduct; the abyſs

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abyſs which ſhe is threatened to be involved in, and the only means of eſcaping by the treaty which France ſtill, on account of my mediation, has agreed to accept. The court of Portugal anſwered in the uſual manner, and ſent a negotiator with inſufficient powers, at the ſame time that it rejected my propoſitions. Thus, as it is of importance to the tranquillity of all Europe to force that power to make peace with France, and to ſecure my dear ſubjects the remuneration to which they are entitled, I have ordered my ambaſſador to quit Liſbon; I have given a paſſport to the Portugueſe ambaſſador at my court to depart, being decided, though with regret, to attack that power, by the union of my forces with thoſe of the republic, whoſe cauſe is become the ſame by the imprudent negotiation in which I engaged myſelf, by our connexions in point of intereſt, and in order to avenge the particular inſults that have been offered to me. For this purpoſe I declare war againſt her moſt faithful majeſty, her kingdom, and ſubjects, wiſhing this reſolution to be known through all my ſtates, in order that all convenient meaſures may be taken for the defence of my ſtates and my ſhips, as alſo to attack my enemies.

Done at Aranjuez, February 27, 1801.

Proclamation by the Portugueſe Government.

Liſbon, April 26.

To the clergy, nobility, and people.

YOU all know that it is the conſtant endeavour of the prince who governs us, and for whom we are indebted to Providence, to obtain by every means of juſtice and good faith for his ſubjects, whom he loves as his own children, the repoſe and tranquillity neceſſary to their happineſs. In the midſt of all the convulſions that have agitated Europe, an activity of vigilance, a ſyſtem of juſtice equally firm and coercive, have ſecured to the Portugeſe the calm which they enjoy ſince 1790. This ſtate, in poſſeſſion of its independence, while ſo many countries have been ſubjugated, holds out to Europe the example of a ſcrupulous fidelity in the execution of all its engagements with reſpect to foreign nations. It gave to Spain a recent inſtance of its good faith in its adherence to treaties. A Portugueſe army marched, in 1793, to the aſſiſtance of that power, and the ſupport which it received from our auguſt ſovereign was decided rather by its own wants than by other circumſtances. Whoever has performed his duty has nothing to fear, and erects upon the baſis of ſcrupulous juſtice his claims to gratitude. Spain, however, which ſhould in all caſes be the firſt power to evince its ſentiments of gratitude for the generous conduct of Portugal, has on the contrary, by terminating hoſtilities with France, not only endangered the nation which aſſiſted it, but declared war againſt us for having remained faithful to our treaties. It ſets up a pretext, that thoſe treaties, contracted in the preſence of God and man, ſhould be ſuddenly broken, and that our auguſt prince and the nation ſhould be guilty of perjury. It is intended to degrade and debaſe you by reducing you to the condition of brokers and factors of your own commerce. Spain requires that our ports

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ports ſhould be garriſoned by her troops, in order to have a guarantee of our fidelity. A nation which could reſiſt the Romans, conquer Aſia, make great diſcoveries by ſea, ſhake off, while ſhe was ſtill in a weak ſtate, the yoke of a foreign ſceptre, and recover and maintain her independence—ſhould not that nation, at preſent, recall to mind the honourable annals of her hiſtory? People of Portugal! we ſtill preſerve the courage and the ſentiments of honour tranſmitted to us by our anceſtors!

Juſtice is on our ſide; and the true God, favourable to our cauſe, will puniſh, by our arms, the injuſtice of our enemies. He will cover with glory our generous and legitimate ſovereign. Our patriotiſm, the equity of our cauſe, the remembrance of our exploits, will enſure victory to our ſtandard. Can we then doubt the loyalty, the eagerneſs of the troops, the militia, the free corps, &c. to aſſemble under their commanders? Can there exiſt a doubt but that their attachment to the prince who governs us, as well as the animation which they muſt feel in the cauſe of national honour, and their zeal and ardour inſpired by a juſt defence, will oppoſe to our enemies an invincible barrier?

Articles of the Treaty between Spain and Portugal, executed on the 6th of June; publiſhed at Madrid the 8th of Auguſt.

ART. I. There ſhall be peace, amity, and good underſtanding between his catholic majeſty the king of Spain, and the prince regent of Portugal and Algarve, as well by ſea as land, through the whole extent of their kingdoms and poſſeſſions; and all captures which ſhall be made by ſea, after the ratification of the preſent treaty, ſhall be faithfully reſtored, with all their goods and effects, or their reſpective value paid.

II. His royal highneſs will ſhut the ports of his whole territories againſt the ſhips of Great Britain in general.

III. His catholic majeſty will reſtore to his royal highneſs the fortreſſes and places of Gurumena, Aronches, Portalegri, Caſtel Davide, Barbaamar Campo Major, and Ouguela, with all the territories hitherto conquered by his arms, or which may hereafter be conquered, with all their artillery, fire-arms, or other warlike ſtores, and in the ſame condition in which they were ſurrendered to him; and his catholic majeſty will take as a conqueſt the fortreſs of Olivenza, with its territories and inhabitants from the Guadina, and unite the ſame for ever to his own territory and ſubjects, as that river above mentioned ſhall be the boundary of the reſpective kingdoms on that part.

IV. His royal highneſs the prince regent of Portugal and Algarve will not permit any depôts of prohibited and contraband goods, which may be prejudicial to the intereſt of the crown of Spain, to be formed on the frontiers of his kingdom, excluſive of ſuch as appertain to the revenues of the crown of Portugal, or are neceſſary for the conſumption of the reſpective territory in which they are eſtabliſhed; and if this or any other article ſhall not be maintained, the treaty which is now concluded between the three powers, including the interchangable guarantee, ſhall be

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be null and void, as is expreſſed in the articles of the preſent treaty.

V. His royal highneſs will immediately repair and make good all damages or injuries which the ſubjects of his catholic majeſty may have ſuſtained, during the preſent war, from the ſhips of Great Britain or the ſubjects of the court of Portugal, and for which they can rightfully claim indemnification; and in like manner his catholic majeſty engages to make ſuitable ſatisfaction for all captures which may have been made by the Spaniards before the preſent war, in violation of, or within cannon ſhot, of the Portugueſe territory.

VI. Within the ſpace of three months, reckoning from the ratification of the preſent treaty, his royal highneſs will pay to the treaſury of his catholic majeſty the expenſes left unpaid when they withdrew from the war with France, and which were occaſioned by the ſame, according to the eſtimate given in by the ambaſſador of his catholic majeſty, or which may be given in anew; with the exception, however, of any error that may be found in the ſaid eſtimates.

VII. As ſoon as the preſent treaty ſhall be ſigned, all hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on both ſides, within twenty-four hours, without any contributions or requiſitions being laid after that time on any of the conquered places, except ſuch as may be allowed to friendly troops in time of peace; and as ſoon as this treaty ſhall be ratified, the Spaniſh troops ſhall leave the Portugueſe territory within ſix days, and ſhall begin their march within ſix hours after receiving notice, without offering any violence or injury to the inhabitants in their way, and they ſhall pay for whatever may be neceſſary for them, according to the current price of the country.

VIII. All priſoners which may have been taken by ſea and land ſhall, within fifteen days after the ratification of the preſent treaty, be ſet at liberty, and delivered up on both ſides; and, at the ſame time, all debts which they may have contracted during their impriſonment ſhall be paid. The ſick and wounded ſhall remain in the reſpective hoſpitals, there to be taken care of, and in like manner delivered up, as ſoon as they ſhall be able to begin their march.

IX. His catholic majeſty engages to guarantee to his royal highneſs the prince regent of Portugal the entire poſſeſſion of all his ſtates and poſſeſſions, without the leaſt exception or reſerve.

X. The two high contracting parties engage to renew the treaty of defenſive alliance which exiſted between the two monarchies, but with ſuch clauſes and alterations as the connexions entered into by the Spaniſh monarchy with the French republic may demand; and in the ſame treaty ſhall be regulated what aid ſhall be mutually afforded ſhould neceſſity require.

XI. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified within ten days after it is ſigned, or ſooner, if poſſible. In witneſs of this, we, the underſigned miniſters plenipotentiary, have ſubſcribed the preſent treaty with our own hands, and ſealed it with our arms.

(L. S.) The prince of Peace.

(L. S.) Louis Pinto di Souza.

Done at Badajos,
June 6, 1801.

Procla-

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Proclamation issued the 20th July, at Lisbon.

HAVING, with the mercy of God, been enabled to put a stop to the effusion of human blood, who, by his all-powerful providence, has caused the blessings of peace to succeed the horrors of war, consummated by the divine power, by a treaty of peace and amity, concluded at Badajos, on the 6th day of June, of this present year, between me and the king of Spain, followed by the formal ratifications, ultimately exchanged in the aforesaid city of Badajos, by the same authorities, on the 16th of the same month of June, by virtue of which treaty of peace and its ratifications, is re-established a sincere and constant amity and friendship between me and his catholic majesty, don Charles IV. our heirs, successors, kingdoms, states, provinces, and subjects of every condition whatever, without exception of persons or places. This we make known to our supreme council (Disembargo de Paco) for them to promulgate the same throughout my kingdom, that, from the day of this publication, after having returned thanks to the Almighty for so great a blessing, all my subjects, of every rank and condition whatever, are to abstain from every kind or act of hostility, and to prosecute no farther hostilities against the persons and property of the said court of Spain or its subjects; but, as heretofore, to renew an open communication, a sincere friendship, and reciprocal correspondence, and to use every means to attain the re-establishment of entire union. And whoever acts to the contrary, will incur the penalties and punishments inflicted on the disturbers of the public peace. We have caused this, by means of our council, to be publicly affixed, and to be made as public as possible.

Given at our palace, at Queluz, 20th July, 1801.

(Signed) Prince Regent.

Address to the American Congress, by the President, March 9.

Friends and fellow citizens,

CALLED upon to undertake the duties of the first executive office of our country, I avail myself of the presence of that portion of my fellow-citizens which are here assembled, to express my grateful thanks for the favour with which they have been pleased to look towards me, to declare a sincere consciousness that the task is above my talents, and that I approach it with those anxious and awful presentiments, which the greatness of the charge, and the weakness of my powers, so justly inspire. A rising nation, spread over a wide and fruitful land, traversing all the seas with the rich productions of their industry; engaged in commerce with nations, who feel power and forget right, advancing rapidly to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye; when I contemplate these transcendant objects, and see the honour, the happiness, and the hopes of this beloved country, committed to the issue, and the auspices of this day, I shrink from the contemplation, and humble myself before the magnitude of the undertaking. Utterly, indeed, should I despair, did not the presence of many whom I here see, remind me, that in the other high authorities provided by our constitution, I shall find

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find resources of wisdom, of virtue, and of zeal, on which to rely under all difficulties. To you then, gentlemen, who are charged with the sovereign functions of legislation, and to those associated with you, I look with encouragement for that guidance and support, which may enable us to steer with safety the vessel, in which we are all embarked, amidst the conflicting elements of a troubled world.

During the contest of opinion through which we have passed, the animation of discussions and exertions has sometimes worn an aspect, which might impose on strangers unused to think freely, and to speak and to write what they think; but this being now decided by the voice of the nation, announced according to the rules of the constitution, all will of course arrange themselves under the will of the law, and unite in common efforts for the common good. All too will bear in mind this sacred principle, that though the will of the majority is in all cases to prevail, that will to be rightful must be reasonable; that the minority possess their equal rights, which equal laws must protect, and to violate would be oppression. Let us, then, fellow citizens, unite with one heart and one mind; let us restore to social intercourse that harmony and affection, without which liberty, and even life itself, are but dreary things; and let us reflect, that having banished from our land that religious intolerance under which mankind so long bled and suffered, we have yet gained little if we countenance a political intolerance, as despotic as wicked, and capable of as bitter and bloody persecutions. During the throes and convulsions of the ancient world, during the agonizing spasms of infuriated man, seeking through blood and slaughter his long-lost liberty, it was not wonderful that the agitation of the billows should reach even this distant and peaceful shore—that this should be more felt and feared by some and less by others, and should divide opinions as to measures of safety; but every difference of opinion, is not a difference of principle. We have called by different names, brethren of the same principle. We are all republicans—all federalists. If there be any among us who would wish to dissolve this union, or to change its republican form, let them stand undisturbed as monuments of the safety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it. I know, indeed, that some honest men fear that a republican government cannot be strong; that this government is not strong enough. But would the honest patriot, in the full tide of successful experiment, abandon a government which has so far kept us free and firm, on the theoretic and visionary fear that this government, the world's best hope, may, by possibility, want energy to preserve itself? I trust not; I believe this, on the contrary, the strongest government on earth. I believe it the only one where every man, at the call of the law, would fly to the standard of the law, and would meet invasions of the public order, as his own personal concern. Sometimes it is said that man cannot be trusted with the government of himself—Can he then be trusted with the government of others? Or have we found angels in the form of kings to govern him? Let history answer the question. Let us then, with courage and confidence, pursue our own federal and republican

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republican principles; our attachment to union and representative government. Kindly separated by nature, and a wide ocean, from the exterminating havoc of one quarter of the globe, too high minded to endure the degradations of the others; possessing a chosen country, with room enough for descendants to the thousandth and thousandth generation; entertaining a due sense of our equal right to the use of our own faculties, to the acquisition of our own industry, to honour and confidence from our fellow citizens, resulting not from birth, but from our actions, and their sense of them; enlightened by a benign religion, professed indeed and practised in various forms, yet all of them inculcating honesty, truth, temperance, gratitude, and the love of man; acknowledging and adoring an over-ruling providence, which by all its dispensations proves, that it delights in the happiness of man here, and his greater happiness hereafter; with all these blessings, what more is necessary to make us a happy and prosperous people? Still one thing more, fellow citizens; a wise and frugal government, which restraining men from injuring one another, shall leave them otherwise free to regulate their own pursuits of industry and improvement, and shall not take from the mouth of labour the bread it has earned. This is the sum of good government; and this is necessary to close the circle of our felicities.

About to enter, fellow citizens, on the exercise of duties, which comprehend every thing dear and valuable to you, it is proper you should understand what I deem the essential principles of our government, and consequently those which ought to shape its administration. I will compress them within the narrowest compass they will bear, stating the general principle, but not all its limitations: equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever state or persuasion, religious or political: peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations; entangling alliances with none: the support of the state governments in all their rights, as the most competent administration for our domestic concerns, and the surest bulwarks against anti-republican tendencies: the preservation of the general government in its whole constitutional vigour, as the sheet anchor of our peace at home, and safety abroad; a jealous care of the right of election by the people: a mild and safe corrective of abuses which are lopped by the sword of revolution, where peaceable remedies are unprovided: absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority, the vital principle of republics, from which is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of despotism: a well disciplined militia, our best reliance in peace, and for the first moments of war, till regulars may relieve them: the supremacy of the civil over the military authority: economy in the public expense, that labour may be lightly burthened: the honest payment of our debts, and sacred preservation of the public faith: encouragement of agriculture, and of commerce, as its handmaid: the diffusion of information, and arraignment of all abuses at the bar of public reason: freedom of religion, freedom of the press, and freedom of the person, under protection of the habeas corpus: and trial by juries impartially selected. These principles form the bright constellation which has gone

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before us, and guided our steps through an age of revolution and reformation. The wisdom of all our sages, and blood of our heroes, have been devoted to their attainment: they should be the creed of our political faith; the text of civic instruction; the touchstone by which to try the services of those we trust; and, should we wander from them in moments of error or of alarm, let us hasten to retrace our steps, and regain the road which alone lead to peace, liberty, and safety.

I repair, then, fellow citizens, to the post you have assigned me. With experience enough, in subordinate offices, to have seen the difficulties of this, the greatest of all, I have learnt to expect that it will rarely fall to the lot of imperfect man to retire from this station with the reputation and the favour which bring him into it. Without pretensions to that high confidence you reposed in our first and greatest revolutionary character, whose pre-eminent services had entitled him to the first place in his country's love, and destined for him the fairest page in the volume of faithful history, I ask so much confidence only as may give firmness and effect to the legal administration of your affairs. I shall go wrong through defect of judgement: when right I shall often be thought wrong by those whose positions will not command a view of the whole ground. I ask your indulgence for my own error, which will never be intentional; and your support against the errors of others, who may condemn what they would not if seen in all its parts. The approbation implied by your suffrages is a great consolation to me for the past, and my future solicitude will be to retain the good opinion of those who have bestowed it in advance: to conciliate that of others, by doing them all the good in my power, and to be instrumental to the happiness and freedom of all.

Relying then on the patronage of your good will, I advance with obedience to the work, ready to retire from it whenever you become sensible how much better choice it is in your power to make; and may that infinite Power, which rules the destinies of the universe, lead our councils to what is best, and give them a favourable issue for your peace and prosperity.

Message to both Houses of Congress, from the President of the United States, Dec. 8, 1801.

Sir,

THE circumstances, under which we find ourselves at this place, rendering inconvenient the mode heretofore practised, of making, by personal address, the first communications between the legislative and executive branches, I have adopted that by message, as used on all subsequent occasions through the session. In doing this, I have had principal regard to the convenience of the legislature, to the economy of their time, to their relief from the embarrassment of immediate answers, on the subjects not yet fully before them, and to the benefits thence resulting to the public affairs. Trusting that a procedure, founded in those motives, will meet their approbation, I beg leave, through you, sir, to communicate the inclosed message, with the documents accompanying it, to the honourable the house of representatives, and pray you to accept, for yourself and them, the

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the homage of my high reſpect and conſideration.

Th. Jefferſon.

The hon. the ſpeaker of the houſe of repreſentatives.

Meſſage.

Fellow citizens of the ſenate and of the houſe of repreſentatives,

It is a circumſtance of ſincere gratification to me, that, on meeting the great council of the nation, I am able to announce to them, on grounds of reaſonable certainty, that the wars and troubles, which have for ſo many years afflicted our ſiſter nations, have at length come to an end, and that the communications of peace and commerce are once more opening among them. Whilſt we devoutly return thanks to the beneficent being, who has been pleaſed to breathe into them the ſpirit of conciliation and forgiveneſs, we are bound, with peculiar gratitude, to be thankful that our own peace has been preſerved through ſo perilous a ſeaſon, and ourſelves permitted quietly to cultivate the earth, and to practice and improve thoſe arts which tend to increaſe our comforts. The aſſurances, indeed, of friendly diſpoſition, received from all the powers with whom we have principal relations, had inſpired a confidence that our peace with them would not have been diſturbed. But a ceſſation of the irregularities which has afflicted the commerce of neutral nations, and of the irritations and injuries produced by them, cannot but add to this confidence, and ſtrengthens, at the ſame time, the hope that wrongs, committed on unoffending friends, under a preſſure of circumſtances, will now be reviewed with candour, and will be conſidered as founding juſt claims of retribution for the paſt, and new aſſurance for the future.

Among our Indian neighbours, alſo, a ſpirit of peace and friendſhip generally prevails, and I am happy to inform you that the continued efforts to introduce among them the implements, and the practice of huſbandry, and of the houſehold arts, have not been without ſucceſs: that they are become more and more ſenſible of the ſuperiority of this dependence, for clothing and ſubſiſtence, over the precarious reſources of hunting and fiſhing: and already we are able to announce that, inſtead of that conſtant diminution of their numbers, produced by their wars and their wants, ſome of them begin to experience an increaſe of population.

To this ſtate of general peace, with which we have been bleſſed, only one exception exiſts. Tripoli, the leaſt conſiderable of the Barbary ſtates, had come forward with demands unfounded either in right or in compact, and had permitted itſelf to denounce war, on our failure to comply before a given day. The ſtyle of the demand admitted but one anſwer. I ſent a ſmall ſquadron of frigates into the Mediterranean, with aſſurances to that power of our ſincere deſire to remain in peace; but with orders to protect our commerce againſt the threatened attack. The meaſure was ſeaſonable and ſalutary. The bey had already declared war in form. His cruiſers were out. Two had arrived at Gibraltar. Our commerce in the Mediterranean was blockaded; and that of the Atlantic in peril. The arrival of our ſquadron diſpelled the danger. One of the Tripolitan cruiſers having fallen in with and engaged the ſmall ſchooner Enterprize, commanded by lieu-

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tenant Sterret, which had gone out as a tender to our larger veſſels was captured, after a heavy ſlaughter of her men, without the loſs of a ſingle one on our part. The bravery exhibited by our citizens, on that element, will, I truſt, be a teſtimony to the world, that it is not a want of that virtue which makes us ſeek their peace; but a conſcientious deſire to direct the energies of our nation to the multiplication of the human race, and not to its deſtruction. Unauthoriſed by the conſtitution, without the ſanction of congreſs, to go beyond the line of defence, the veſſel being diſabled from committing farther hoſtilities, was liberated with its crew. The legiſlature will doubtleſs conſider whether, by authoriſing meaſures of offence alſo, they will place our force on an equal footing with that of its adverſaries. I communicate all material information on this ſubject, that in the exerciſe of the important function, confided by the conſtitution to the legiſlature excluſively, their judgement may form itſelf on a knowledge and conſideration of every circumſtance of weight.

I wiſh I could ſay that our ſituation with all the other Barbary ſtates was entirely ſatisfactory. Diſcovering that ſome delays had taken place in the performance of certain articles ſtipulated by us, I thought it my duty, by immediate meaſures for fulfilling them, to vindicate to ourſelves the right of conſidering the effect of departure from ſtipulation on their ſide. From the papers, which will be laid before you, you will be enabled to judge whether our treaties are regarded by them as fixing at all the meaſure of their demands, or as guarding, againſt the exerciſe of force, our veſſels within their power; and to conſider how far it will be ſafe and expedient to leave our affairs with them in their preſent poſture.

I lay before you the reſult of the cenſus lately taken of our inhabitants, to a conformity with which we are to reduce the enſuing rates of repreſentation and taxation. You will perceive that the increaſe of numbers, during the laſt ten years, proceeding in geometrical ratio, promiſes a duplication in little more than twenty-two years. We contemplate this rapid growth, and the proſpect it holds up to us, not with a view to the injuries it may enable us to do to others in ſome future day, but to the ſettlement of the extenſive country ſtill remaining vacant within our limits, to the multiplication of men, ſuſceptible of happineſs, educated in the love of order, habituated to ſelf government, and valuing its bleſſings above all price.

Other circumſtances combined with the increaſe of numbers have produced an augmentation of revenue ariſing from conſumption, in a ratio far beyond that of population alone; and though the changes in foreign relations, now taking place ſo deſirably for the whole world, may for a ſeaſon affect this branch of revenue, yet weighing all probabilities of expenſe, as well as of income, there is reaſonable ground of confidence that we may now ſafely diſpenſe with all the internal taxes, comprehending exciſes, ſtamps, auctions, licences, carriages, and refined ſugars: to which the poſtage on newſpapers may be added to facilitate the progreſs of information: and that the remaining ſources of revenue will be ſufficient to provide for

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for the support of government, to pay the intereſts of public debts, and to diſcharge the principals in ſhorter periods than the laws, or the general expectation had contemplated. War, indeed, and untoward events may change this proſpect of things, and call for expenſes which the impoſts could not meet. But ſound principles will not juſtify our taxing the induſtry of our fellow citizens to accumulate treaſure for wars to happen we know not when, and which might not, perhaps, happen, but from the temptations offered by that treaſure.

Theſe views, however, of reducing our burthens, are formed on the expectation, that a ſenſible, and at the ſame time a ſalutary reduction may take place in our habitual expenditure. For this purpoſe, thoſe of the civil government, the army and navy, will need reviſal. When we conſider that this government is charged with the external and mutual relations only of theſe ſtates; that the ſtates themſelves have principal care of our perſons, our property, and our reputation; conſtituting the great field of human concerns, we may well doubt whether our organization is not too complicated, too expenſive; whether offices and officers have not been multiplied unneceſſarily, and ſometimes injuriouſly to the ſervice they were meant to promote. I will cauſe to be laid before you an eſſay towards a ſtatement of thoſe who, under public employment of various kinds, draw money from the treaſury, or from our citizens. Time has not permitted a perfect enumeration, the ramifications of office being too multiplied and remote to be completely traced in a firſt trial. Among thoſe who are dependent on executive diſcretion, I have began the reduction of what was deemed unneceſſary. The expenſes of diplomatic agency have been conſiderably diminiſhed. The inſpectors of internal revenue, who were found to obſtruct the accountability of the inſtitution, have been diſcontinued. Several agencies, created by executive authority, on ſalaries fixed by that alſo, have been ſuppreſſed, and I ſhould ſuggeſt the expediency of regulating that power by law, ſo as to ſubject its exerciſes to legiſlative inſpection and ſanction. Other reformations of the ſame kind will be purſued with that caution which is requiſite, in removing uſeleſs things, not to injure what is retained. But the great maſs of public officers is eſtabliſhed by law, and therefore by law alone can be aboliſhed. Should the legiſlature think it expedient to paſs this roll in review, and to try all its parts by public utility, they may be aſſured of every aid and light which executive information can yield.

Conſidering the general tendency to multiply offices and dependencies, and to increaſe expenſe to the ultimate term of burthen which the citizen can bear, it behoves us to avail ourſelves of every occaſion which preſents itſelf for taking off the ſurcharge; that it never may be ſeen here that, after leaving to labour the ſmalleſt portion of its earnings on which it can ſubſiſt, government ſhall itſelf conſume the reſidue of what it was inſtituted to guard.

In our care too of the public contributions intruſted to our direction, it would be prudent to multiply barriers againſt their diſſipation, by appropriating ſpecific ſums to every ſpecific purpoſe ſuſceptible of definition: by diſallowing all applica-

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tions of money varying from the appropriation in object or transcending it in amount; by reducing the undefined field of contingencies, and thereby circumscribing discretionary powers over money; and by bringing back to a single department all accountabilities for money, where the examination may be prompt, efficacious, and uniform.

An account of the receipt and expenditure of the last year, as prepared by the secretary of the treasury, will, as usual, be laid before you. The success which has attended the late sales of the public lands shews that, with attention, they may be made an important source of receipt. Among the payments, those made in discharge of the principal and interest of the national debt will shew that the public faith has been exactly maintained. To these will be added an estimate of appropriations necessary for the ensuing year. This last will of course be affected by such modifications of the system of expenses as you shall think proper to adopt.

A statement has been formed by the secretary at war, on mature consideration of all the posts and stations where garrisons will be expedient, and of the number of men requisite for each garrison. The whole amount is considerably short of the present military establishment. For the surplus no particular use can be pointed out. For defence against invasion, their number is as nothing; nor is it considered needful or safe that a standing army should be kept up, in time of peace. Uncertain as we must ever be of the particular point in our circumference where an enemy may chuse to invade us, the only force which can be ready at every point, and competent to oppose them, is the body of neighbouring citizens, as formed into a militia. On these, collected from the parts most convenient, in numbers proportioned to the invading force, it is best to rely, not only to meet the first attack, but if it threatens to be permanent, to maintain the defence until the regulars may be engaged to relieve them. Those considerations render it important that we should, at every session, continue to amend the the defects, which from time to time shew themselves, in the laws for regulating the militia, until they are sufficiently perfect: nor should we now, or at any time separate until we can say we have done every thing for the militia, which we could do, were an enemy at the door.

The provision of military stores on hand will be laid before you, that you may judge of the additions still requisite.

With respect to the extent to which our preparations should be carried, some difference of opinion may be expected to appear; but just attention to the circumstances of every part of the union will doubtless reconcile all. A small force will probably continue to be wanted for actual service in the Mediterranean. Whatever annual sum, beyond that you may think proper to appropriate to naval preparations, would perhaps be better employed in providing those articles which may be kept without waste or consumption, and be in readiness when any exigence shall call them into use. Progress has been made, as will appear by papers now communicated, in providing materials for seventy-four gun ships as directed by law.

How far the authority given by the legislature, for procuring and establishing sites for naval purposes, has

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has been perfectly underſtood and purſued in the execution admits of ſome doubt.—A ſtatement of the expenſes already incurred on that ſubject ſhall be laid before you. I have, in certain caſes, ſuſpended or ſlackened theſe expenditures, that the legiſlature might determine whether ſo many yards are neceſſary as have been contemplated.—The works at this place are among thoſe permitted to go on; and five of the ſeven frigates directed to be laid up, have been brought and laid up here, where, beſides the ſafety of their poſition, they are under the eye of the executive adminiſtration, as well as its agents, and where yourſelves alſo will be guided by your own view, in the legiſlative proviſions reſpecting them, which may from time to time be neceſſary. They are preſerved in ſuch condition, as well the veſſels, as whatever belongs to them, as to be at all times ready for ſea on a ſhort warning. Two others are yet to be laid up, ſo ſoon as they ſhall have received the repairs requiſite to put them alſo in a ſound condition. As a ſuperintending officer will be neceſſary at each yard, his duties and emoluments, hitherto fixed by the executive, will be a more proper ſubject for legſlation. A communication will be made of our progreſs in the execution of the law reſpecting the veſſels directed to be ſold.

The fortifications of our harbours, more or leſs advanced, preſent conſiderations of great difficulty. While ſome of them are on a ſcale ſufficiently proportioned to the advantages of their poſition, to the efficacy of their protection, and the importance of the points within them, others are ſo extenſive, will coſt ſo much in the firſt erection, ſo much in their maintenance, and require ſuch a force to garriſon them, as to make it queſtionable what is beſt now to be done. A ſtatement of thoſe commenced or projected, of the expenſes already incurred and eſtimates of their future coſt, as far as can be foreſeen, ſhall be laid before you, that you may be enabled to judge whether any alteration is neceſſary in the laws reſpecting this ſubject.

Agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and navigation, the four pillars of our proſperity, are then moſt thriving, when left moſt free to individual enterpriſe. Protection from caſual embarraſſments, however, may ſometimes be ſeaſonably interpoſed. If, in the courſe of your obſervations or inquiries, they ſhould appear to need any aid, within the limits of our conſtitutional powers, your ſenſe of their importance is a ſufficient aſſurance they will occupy your attention. We cannot, indeed, but all feel an anxious ſolicitude for the difficulties under which our carrying trade will ſoon be placed. How far it can be relieved, otherwiſe than by time, is a ſubject of important conſideration.

The judiciary ſyſtem of the United States, and eſpecially that portion of it recently erected, will of courſe preſent itſelf to the contemplation of congreſs; and that they may be able to judge of the proportion which the inſtitution bears to the buſineſs it has to perform, I have cauſed to be procured from the ſeveral ſtates, and now lay before congreſs, an exact ſtatement of all the cauſes decided ſince the firſt eſtabliſhment of the courts, and of thoſe which were depending when additional courts and judges were brought in to their aid.

And while on the judiciary organization it will be worthy your conſideration

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ſideration whether the protection of the ineſtimable inſtitution of juries has been extended to all the caſes involving the ſecurity of our perſons and property. Their impartial ſelection alſo being eſſential to their value, we ought farther to conſider whether that is ſufficiently ſecured in thoſe ſtates, where they are named by a marſhal depending on executive will, or deſignated by the court, or by officers dependant on them.

I cannot omit recommending a reviſal of the laws on the ſubject of naturalization. Conſidering the ordinary chances of human life, a denial of citizenſhip under a reſidence of 14 years, is a denial to a great proportion of thoſe who aſk it; and controls a policy purſued, from their firſt ſettlement, by many of theſe ſtates, and ſtill believed of conſequence to their proſperity. And ſhall we refuſe to the unhappy fugitives from diſtreſs, that hoſpitality which the ſavages of the wilderneſs extended to our fathers arriving in this land? Shall oppreſſed humanity find no aſylum on this globe? The conſtitution, indeed, has wiſely provided that, for admiſſion to certain offices of important truſt, a reſidence ſhall be required ſufficient to develope character and deſign. But might not the general character and capabilities of a citizen be ſafely communicated to every one manifeſting a *bona fide* purpoſe of embarking his life and fortunes permanently with us? with reſtrictions, perhaps, to guard againſt the fraudulent uſurpation of our flag; an abuſe which brings ſo much embarraſſment and loſs on the genuine citizen, and ſo much danger to the nation of being involved in war, that no endeavour ſhould be ſpared to detect and ſuppreſs it.

Theſe, fellow-citizens, are the matters reſpecting the ſtate of the nation, which I have thought of importance to be ſubmitted to your conſideration at this time. Some others of leſs moment, or not yet ready for communication, will be the ſubject of ſeparate meſſages. I am happy in this opportunity of committing the arduous affairs of our government to the collected wiſdom of the union.

Nothing ſhall be wanting on my part to inform, as far as in my power, the legiſlative judgement, nor to carry that judgement into faithful execution. The prudence and temperence of your diſcuſſions will promote, within your own walls, that conciliation which ſo much befriends rational concluſion, and by its example will encourage among our conſtituents that progreſſive opinion which is tending to unite them in object and in will. That all ſhould be ſatisfied with any one order of things is not to be expected; but I indulge the pleaſing perſuaſion that the great body of our citizens will cordially concur in honeſt and diſintereſted efforts, which have for their object to preſerve the general and ſtate governments in their conſtitutional form and equilibrium — to maintain peace abroad, and order and obedience to the laws at home —to eſtabliſh principles and practices of adminiſtration favourable to the ſecurity of liberty and property —and to uſe expenſes to what is neceſſary for the uſeful purpoſes of government.

Th. Jefferſon.

Letter from Touſſaint Louverture, Commander-in-Chief of the Army of St. Domingo, to Citizen Bonaparte,

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parte, First Conful of the French Republic.

At St. Domingo, Feb. 12, *9th Year of the French Republic, One and Indivifible,* 1801.

Citizen conful,

DISAFFECTION, alarmed at the determination by which the Spanifh part of St. Domingo was about to be annexed to the dominions of the republic, employed every art and intrigue to raife obftacles to the meafure. That which beft fuited its views was to recall citizen Roume, agent of the government, and to engage him to adopt means for poftponing the poffeffion of that fettlement which he had himfelf decreed.

Refolved to obtain it by force of arms, I felt it my duty, before I began my march, to invite citizen Roume to terminate his functions and to retire to Dondon until he fhould receive new orders; becaufe intrigue and diffaffection would be there lefs capable of leading him aftray. He continues there ready to obey your orders. Whenever you fhall claim him, I will fend him to France. Whatever may be the calumnies, which my enemies may have prevailed upon him to tranfmit to you againft me, I fhall abftain from any juftification of myfelf; but while my delicacy compels me to filence, my duty enjoins me to prevent him from acting improperly.

The neceffity of carrying on a ftrict correfpondence with my government, and the few opportunities that prefent themfelves for the purpofe, induce me to requeft, citizen conful, that you will appropriate L'Enfant Prodigue corvette to that object only, and that you will difpatch it to St. Domingo once at leaft every three months, in order that I may be enabled to tranfmit to you regularly, at the periods of its return, the precife ftate of this fine colony, for the profperity of which you may be aflured I fhall continue on all occafions to exert myfelf.

Health and profound refpect,

Touiffaint Louverture.

Letter from Touffaint Louverture, Commander in Chief of the Army at St. Domingo, to Citizen Bonaparte, Firft Conful of the French Republic.

Cape Français, July 16, 1801.

Citizen conful,

The minifter of the marine, in the account that he has of courfe given you, of the political fituation of this colony, and which I tranfmitted to him by the difpatches fent by the corvette L'Enfant Prodigue, on her return to France, muft have fubmitted to you my proclamation of the 5th of February. It announces a convocation of a central aflembly, which (at the inftant in which an union of the French and Spanifh parts of St. Domingo made them but one country, fubject to the fame legiflative fyftem) was to eftablifh their future condition by wholefome laws, founded on the manners and pofition of the inhabitants.

I have this day the fatisfaction to inform you, that the finifhing hand has been put to this work, and that a conftitution has been formed, which promifes happinefs to the long fuffering inhabitants of this colony, and which I tranfmit to you for your approbation and that of my government. For this purpofe I have

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have dispatched to you citizen Vincent, chief director of the fortifications at St. Domingo, to whom I intrusted this precious charge. The central assembly having required of me (on account of the non-existence of all law, and the neceffity that there is for the fuppreffion of anarchy) to put this conftitution in force, as a means of fooner producing its future profperity, I have acquiefced in their demand. It has been received by all claffes of perfons with tranfports of joy, which no doubt will be reiterated as foon as it fhall be returned to them with the fanction of government.

Health and refpect,

Touffaint Louverture.

Proclamation by Touffaint Louverture.——From the Official Bulletin of St. Domingo, of the 19th Meffidor, 8th July, 1801, Old Style.

Liberty. Equality.

French Republic.

People of St. Domingo,

The colonial conftitution for this important ifland has juft been handed to me by the central aflembly, compofed of legiflators, who, in virtue of my proclamation of the 16th Pluviofe laft, have met to eftablifh laws which are to regulate and govern us.

I have read that law with attention; and perfuaded that it will enfure the welfare of my fellow-citizens, as it is founded on good morals, on localities, and principally on religion, I approve it.

But when I confider that I am charged with the execution of thefe conftitutional laws, I fee that my task is more difficult than that of the legiflators has been. Nevertheleſs, I announce, that however vaft and fpacious this undertaking may be, I will do my beft to go through with it.

O you, my fellow-citizens, of every age, of every ftation, and of every colour, you are free; and the conftitution, which is this day remitted to me, is to render this liberty eternal

Let us, in the firft place, proftrate ourfelves before the Creator of the Univerfe, to thank him for his bleffings fo precious.

It is my duty to fpeak to you in the language of truth. This conftitution affures to every individual the enjoyment of his rights; it requires of every citizen the practice of the virtues, as it calls within our climate the reign of good morals, and the divine religion of Jefus Chrift.

Therefore, then, magiftrates, ferve as an example to the people of whom you are to confider yourfelves the fathers and the defenders. Let probity and righteoufnefs guide your actions and dictate your fentences. You will fecure to yourfelves the eſteem of your fellow-citizens: it is the fweeteft conſolation a man in office can defire.

Brave military men! generals, officers, fubalterns, and foldiers! obſerve diſcipline and ſubordination; give activity to culture; be obedient to your chiefs; defend and maintain the conſtitution againſt foreign and domeſtic enemies, who might endeavour to injure it. Let your motto always be Bravery, and your guide Honour; you will deſerve well of the country.

Cultivators!

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Cultivators! avoid indolence, it is the mother of vices. Guard principally againſt the ſeductions of men as ill-intentioned as malevolent. You will at all times find in me, as well as in the generals my repreſentatives, the repreſſors of injuſtice and abuſes.

Induſtrious inhabitants of the towns! be ſubmiſſive to the laws; they will not ceaſe to be your protection and your ægis.

People, magiſtrates, and ſoldiers! I lay before you your duties and mine. For me, I promiſe, in the face of Heaven, to do whatever will depend on me, by the permiſſion of God, to preſerve union, peace, and public tranquillity, and conſequently the happineſs of my fellow-citizens. I promiſe to execute what is preſcribed to me by the conſtitution Swear to me, in like manner, before the Supreme Being, that you will ſubmit yourſelves to thoſe laws which are to enſure your happineſs and conſolidate your liberty.

Citizens! I inform you that the law is the compaſs of every citizen; that when it ſpeaks they muſt yield obedience. The civil and military authorities are to be the firſt to ſubmit to them, and to give thereby an example to the people. Follow from point to point the conſtitution which the central and legiſlative aſſembly of St. Domingo has juſt preſented to you; and may the ſublime principles it has juſt conſecrated remain eternally engraven upon your hearts.

At all times, my dear fellow-citizens and friends, my deſire, my wiſh, and my ambition, conſiſted in finding and preparing the means to render you free and happy: if I can attain an object ſo dear to my heart, I ſhall not regret life, and I ſhall go without any remorſe to render an account of my actions to the almighty God, the ſovereign author of all things.

Live for ever the French republic and the colonial conſtitution!

The general in chief,
(Signed) Touſſaint Louverture.

Manifeſto, addreſſed to all the States, Friends or Allies of the French Republic, to all Governors and Commanders-in-Chief of the Sea and Land Forces in the Weſt Indies, to the Captains and Commanders of the different Ships of War belonging to the ſaid States, ſtationed for the Protection of their reſpective Colonies, or navigating in thoſe Seas.

By the three underwritten Magiſtrates, nominated by the Firſt Conſul of the French Republic, to eſtabliſh and conſtitute the Government of Guadaloupe and its Dependencies.

A Month has elapſed ſince a few factious men, enemies to all ſocial order, have found the means to uſurp the government in the iſland of Guadaloupe. To ſucceed in their plan, they have calumniated the legal authority of the captain-general, rear-admiral Lacroſſe, who was then ſolely and proviſionally charged by the firſt conſul, Bonaparte, with the civil and military powers; they have ſeduced and led aſtray the armed forces, incarcerated the officers who remained faithful to the mother-country; and, finally, they have audaciouſly dared to lay criminal hands on the captain-general, and baniſh him from his government,

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ment, after having detained him ſeveral days a priſoner.

The captain-general having been put on board a Daniſh veſſel, with imperative inſtructions to land him at Copenhagen, was fortunately met by his Britannic majeſty's frigate the Tamer, captain Weſtern commander; his claimed protection was granted, and he found an aſylum at the government houſe at Dominica.

At this juncture the news of a general peace arrived in theſe iſlands, with the official account of the preliminary articles having been concluded, ratified, and exchanged between France and England: it was ſuppoſed that the communication of this intelligence, by demonſtrating to the rebels the ſpeedy puniſhment awaiting their miſdemeanours, would be ſufficient to recall them to their duty; but it was in vain. A Britiſh flag of truce went to Guadaloupe, the 13th of November, 1801, and notified to them, the 14th, the official account of peace, to which no credit was given, and the officer of the flag was inſulted.

It was neceſſary for them to act in this manner to be enabled to fit out privateers, and to allow thoſe actually cruiſing to continue their depredations, and to receive their prizes. The legal magiſtrates have now in their poſſeſſion a commiſſion of letter of marque, dated the 15th of November (the day after the notification of peace was communicated by the flag of truce). Information has been received that they have authorized the capture of ſeveral veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty, which have been carried into the ports of Guadaloupe—a conduct abſolutely piratical.

The firſt conſul having given orders to diſpatch from Breſt the Penſée frigate, captain Valteau, with the official account of peace, ſent out likewiſe the colonial preſect and the commiſſary of juſtice, in order to form and complete, in concert with the captain-general, the government of Guadaloupe and its dependencies. On their making the land of Deſeadſi, they were informed of the rebellious ſtate of Guadaloupe, and on the 24th of November they joined the captain-general in the town of Roſeau, of his Britannic majeſty's iſland of Dominica, with the permiſſion of his excellency the hon. Andrew Cochrane Johnſtone.

In conſequence of which, and the two annexed papers, one being an act of the government of the French republic, regulating and conſtituting the different authorities, military, civil, and judiciary, for the iſland of Guadaloupe and its dependencies; and the other, the addreſs of the three magiſtrates compoſing the government, to the citizens of that iſland.

The three aforeſaid magiſtrates, compoſing ſolely the legal government of that colony, are earneſtly prompted to fulfil an eſſential duty, by denouncing to all nations, friends and allies of the French republic, the ſtate of rebellion of Guadaloupe againſt the mother-country, cauſed by ſome ſubaltern factious individuals, and others, without any title, who have uſurped the reins of government, and all civil and military authority; in conſequence of which they hereby declare, that no act of the ſaid rebellious uſurpers will be approved of, or have any effect; that the privateers of Guadaloupe, continuing to cruiſe after the offici-

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al account of peace, or attempting to make prizes, will be looked upon as pirates, and treated accordingly with all the ſeverity pointed out by law.

They requeſt the different governments of their allies, the governors, and commanders of their fleets and ſhips of war, to prevent the exportation of arms, gunpowder, amunition, or proviſions of any kind for the uſe of the rebels, the importation of which into Guadaloupe will be prohibited under the ſevereſt penalties.

They declare and announce, that no naval expedition or commercial clearance from the ſaid iſland or its dependencies can be legal without the captain-general's ſignature for ſhips of war or armed veſſels, and that of the colonial perfect for merchantmen and other veſſels of that deſcription; and they in conſequence requeſt all thoſe who are authorized to act in the different ports where ſuch veſſels from Guadaloupe and its dependencies ſhould anchor, without the proper papers heretofore mentioned, to ſeize and ſequeſtrate them and their reſpective cargoes, arreſt their crews and paſſengers, and likewiſe all paſſengers leaving Guadaloupe in neutral bottoms, without the captain-general's paſſport; the aforeſaid ſeizure and individuals to be at the diſpoſal of the magiſtrates compoſing the government of Guadaloupe, or of the commiſſaries for the commercial intercourſe of the French republic, wherever ſuch eſtabliſhments ſhould exiſt. They declare, that the Saints is the place fixed upon for veſſels intended for Guadaloupe, that it has been granted for that purpoſe by the Britiſh government until farther orders, and that means will be there found to communicate with the legal government of the ſaid iſland, and aſſiſtance, if required, obtained.

The aforeſaid diſpoſitions will take place proviſionally until the French government ſends out to theſe iſlands ſufficient means to put a ſtop to plunder and rebellion, and reeſtabliſh order, which, when it takes place, will be publiſhed in the ſame manner being of eſſential importance for the tranquillity of all governments.

Given at Roſeau, in his Britannic majeſty's iſland of Dominica, the 3d day of December, 1801.

La Croſſe, captain-general.
Leſcallier, colonial prefect.
Coſter, commiſſary of juſtice.

Proclamation in the Name of the French Colony of St. Domingo, Touſſaint Louverture, Governor.

Liberty. Equality.

EVER ſince the revolution I have done all that reſted with me to reſtore the happineſs of my country, to ſecure the liberty of my fellow-citizens. Forced to fight the internal and external enemies of the French republic, I have made war with courage, honour, and loyalty. Towards my greateſt enemies I have never ſwerved from the rules of juſtice; and if I have uſed all the means which were in my power to conquer them, I have likewiſe endeavoured, ſo far as lay in me, to mitigate the horrors of war, to ſpare the blood of man. The pardon of offences has ever been my principle; humanity my leading ſentiment; and I have received as friends and brothers thoſe who the day before were under the hoſtile banners. By forgetting errors and faults, I have wiſhed to make

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make the genuine and sacred cause of liberty amiable, even to our most ardent adversaries.

I have constantly reminded my brethren in arms, as well officers as generals, that the rank, to which they were raised ought only to be the reward of honour, bravery, and irreproachable private behaviour; that the more they were elevated above their fellow-citizens, the more circumspect and unblameable should be all their actions and all their words: that the scandal of public men was attended by consequences more detrimental to society than that of simple citizens; that the rank and functions with which they were invested, were not given to them only to serve their fortunes or their ambition, but that those necessary institutions had for their cause and their end the public good; that they imposed duties which ought, in the first place, to be discharged without selfish considerations; that impartiality and equity ought to dictate all their decisions; the love of order, the prosperity of the colony, the suppression of every vice, should perpetually call forth their activity, their vigilance, and their zeal.

I have continually and energetically recommended to the whole military, subordination, discipline, and obedience, without which an army cannot exist. It is created to protect liberty, the security of persons and property; and all those who compose it should never lose sight of the object of its honourable destination. It is for the officers, along with good advice, to give their soldiers good examples. Each captain ought to feel the noble emulation of having his company the best disciplined, the cleanest, and the best exercised; he ought to consider that the errors of his soldiers recoil upon himself, and that he his degraded by the faults of those he commands. The same sentiments ought, in a higher degree, to animate chiefs of battalion for their battalions, and chiefs of brigade for their brigades: they ought to regard them as their own families, when the individuals of whom they are composed perform their duty well, and show themselves rigid commanders when they depart from it.

Such is the language I have held out to general Moyse during ten years, in all my private conversations; which I have repeated to him a thousand times in the presence of his companions; which I have resumed in my correspondence: such are the principles I have recorded in a thousand of my letters. On every occasion I have endeavoured to explain to him the holy maxims of our religion, and to prove to him that man is nothing without the power and will of God; that the duties of a christian who has received baptism ought never to be neglected; that when a man braves providence he must expect a dreadful end. What have I not done to bring him back to virtue, to justice, to benevolence, to change his vicious inclinations, and to hinder him from precipating himself into the abyss? God alone knows it. Instead of listening to the advice of a father, of a chief devoted to the colony, he was only guided by his destructive passions—he perished miserably! Such is the lot reserved for those who shall imitate him. The justice of heaven is slow, but sooner or later it strikes the wicked like a thunderbolt, and crushes them.

The cruel experiment I have just made will not be useless to me; and after

after the misconduct of general Moyse there shall be no general of division named without new orders from the French government.

Nevertheless general Dessalines shall, on account of the services he has done, retain his rank of general of division.

In one of my proclamations, during the war of the south, I have traced the duties of fathers and mothers, their obligations to educate their children in the fear of God, always regarding religion as the basis of all virtue, and the foundation of the happiness of society. In fact, who are they who have, since the revolution, caused the greatest misfortunes to the colony? Have they not been men without religion or morals? He that despises God and his divine precepts, who does not cherish his nearest relations, will he love his fellow-creatures? Thou shalt honour thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long, is one of the first commandments of God. Will a child, who does not respect his father and his mother, listen to the advice of those who are strangers to him? Will he obey the laws of society, who has trampled upon the holiest and mildest law of nature? Yet with what negligence do fathers and mothers educate their children, especially in cities! Instead of instructing them in religion, exacting from them respect and obedience, and giving them ideas suitable to their condition; instead of teaching them to love industry, they leave them in idleness, and ignorance of their first duties; they appear themselves to despise, and teach their children to despise agriculture, the first, the most honourable, and most useful of occupations. Scarcely are they born when we see the same children at once decked with toys and ear-rings, and covered with filthy rags, offending the eye of decency with their nakedness. They thus arrive at the age of twelve, without moral principles or occupation, and with no education, except a relish for luxury and indolence; and as bad impressions are hard to eradicate, they become bad citizens, vagabonds and thieves; or, if they are girls, they are prostitutes; and, be which they will, are ready to obey the impulse of any conspirator who shall preach to them disorder, assassination, and plunder. Upon such vile fathers and mothers, upon such dangerous pupils, the military commanders ought to keep perpetually a watchful eye, that the hand of justice should be continually stretched out.

The same reproach equally applies to a great number of cultivators, male and female, upon the plantations. Since the revolution, ill-disposed men have addressed the lazy and turbulent, and said "That liberty was the right of living in idleness, and doing ill with impunity, of despising the laws, and only following their own fancies." Such a doctrine could not but be well received by all bad subjects, thieves and assassins. It is time to strike at those hardened men who persist in such ideas. All the world ought to know that there are no means of living peaceably and respected, but labour, and assiduous labour.

Such is the lesson which fathers and mothers ought to give to their children every day, and every moment of their lives.

As soon almost as a child can walk he ought to be employed about the plantations, in some useful labour proportioned to his strength, instead of being sent into towns, under pretence of that education he does not receive; he comes there only to learn

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learn vices, to increaſe the rabble of vagabonds, and women of ill fame, to diſturb the repoſe of his fellow-citizens by his very exiſtence, and to end it by a capital puniſhment. The military commanders and the magiſtrates muſt be inexorable to this claſs of men; they muſt force them, in ſpite of themſelves, to be uſeful to that ſociety of which they would be the ſcourge without the ſevereſt vigilance.

Since the revolution it is evident that the war has cauſed the deſtruction of far more men than women; of theſe latter alſo are found a greater number in the towns, whoſe only exiſtence is founded upon libertiniſm. Occupied entirely with thoughts of dreſs, the effects of their proſtitution; diſdaining not only culture, but every other employment, they entirely refuſe to do any thing uſeful. Theſe are they who conceal all the guilty, who live upon the profits of their rapine, who excite them to robbery for the purpoſe of partaking the fruits of their crimes. It concerns the honour of the magiſtrates, generals, and commanders, not to leave one of theſe in the towns or ſuburbs; the leaſt negligence in this reſpect will render them worthy of public cenſure.

Moyſe, it is true, was the ſoul of the late conſpiracy; but he could not have completed his infamy had he not been able to find accomplices.

As to domeſtics, every citizen ought only to have as many as are indiſpenſably neceſſary for his ſervice. The perſons with whom they live ought to be the principal obſervers of their conduct, and to ſuffer nothing in them contrary to good morals, to ſubmiſſion, and to order; if they are idle, they ſhould correct them for this vice; if they are thieves, they ought to be denounced to the military commanders, to be puniſhed according to the laws. A good ſervant, animated with juſtice, will do more work than four bad ones; and ſince, in the new regime, all labour merits wages, ſo all wages merit labour.

Such is the invariable and decided will of the government.

There is, beſides, an object worthy its attention; that is, the obſerving of ſtrangers who arrive in the colony. Some of them only know, from the reports of the enemies of the new order of things, the changes which have taken place, without reflecting upon the cauſes which have produced them, or upon the difficulties which were to be overcome, that the greateſt diſorder that ever exiſted might be ſucceeded by tranquillity and peace, cultivation and trade; they entertain deſigns the more dangerous, as they are welcomed by all thoſe who, founding their hopes upon diſturbances, only deſire pretexts. Such faults ought to be the more ſeverely puniſhed, as the negligence of the public functionaries in this reſpect would enſure that confidence they require, and would cauſe them to be juſtly regarded as the enemies of liberty.

The moſt ſacred of all inſtitutions of men who live in ſociety, from whence flows every good, is marriage. A good father of a family, a good huſband, entirely occupied by the happineſs of his children, ought to be among them the living image of the divinity. Thus a good government ought always to ſurround good families with honour, with reſpect, and with veneration; it ought never to repoſe till it has pulled up the laſt root of immorality. The military commanders, the public func-

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functionaries, are, above all, without excuſe, when they publicly give way to the ſcandal of vice. Thoſe who, having wives, keep concubines in their own houſes, or thoſe who, not being married, live publicly with a variety of women, are unworthy to command, and will be caſhiered.

As a final analyſis every man exiſting in the colony owes to his fellow-citizens a good example; every military commander, every public functionary, ought accurately to fulfil his duty; they will be judged by their actions, by the good they have done, by the tranquillity and proſperity of the places they command. In a well-ordered ſtate, idleneſs is the ſource of every diſorder, and if it is ſuffered in a ſingle individual, I ſhall blame the military commanders, perſuaded that thoſe who tolerate idle perſons and vagabonds, have bad deſigns, and are the ſecret enemies of the government.

No perſon can, under any pretence, be exempt from ſome taſk or other, according to his faculties. Fathers and mothers, who have children and eſtates, ought to go and live there, work there themſelves, make their children work, watch over their labours, and, in the moment of repoſe, inſtruct them themſelves; or by teaching them the precepts of our religion, impreſs upon them the horror of vice, explain to them the commandments of God, engrave the principles of them upon their hearts in an ineffaceable manner, and penetrate them with this truth, that as idleneſs is the mother of every vice, ſo is labour the father of every virtue. It is by theſe means that reſpectable and uſeful citizens will be formed, that one may expect to ſee this beautiful colony one of the happieſt countries upon earth, and for ever keep away thoſe horrible events, the recollection of which can never be effaced from our memories.

In conſequence I decree as follows:

Art. 1. Every commandant who, ſince the late conſpiracy, has had knowledge of the troubles which ſince have broken out, and permitted plunder or aſſaſſination, who being able to prevent or hinder revolt, has ſuffered to be broken that law which declares the life, the property, and the home of every citizen, ſacred and inviolable, ſhall be carried before a ſpecial tribunal, and puniſhed according to the law of 22d Thermidor, year 9 (Auguſt 10, 1801).

Every military commander, who, through want of foreſight, or neglect, has not put a ſtop to diſorders when committed, ſhall be caſhiered, and puniſhed with a year's impriſonment.

There ſhall, in conſequence, be made a rigorous inquiry into their conduct, and then the governor will pronounce upon their fate.

2. All generals commanders of the arrondiſſements, or quarters, who ſhall for the future neglect to take all neceſſary precautions to prevent ſeditions, but ſhall ſuffer the law to be violated, which declares the life, the property, and home of every citizen ſacred and inviolable, ſhall be carried before a ſpecial tribunal, and puniſhed conformable to the law of the 22d Thermidor, year 9 (Auguſt 10, 1801).

3. In caſe of trouble, or indications of its breaking out, the national guard of that quarter or circle ſhall be at the order of the military commanders, on their ſimple requiſition. Every commander who ſhall not have taken the neceſſary pre-

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cautions for preventing trouble in his quarters, or the propagation of troubles from an adjacent quarter; every military man, either of the line or national troops, who ſhall refuſe to obey legal orders, ſhall be puniſhed with death.

4. Every individual, male or female, of whatever colour, who ſhall be convicted of having entertained ſerious intentions of raiſing ſedition, ſhall be taken before a council of war, and puniſhed conformable to law.

5. Every individual creole, male or female, convicted of having entertained deſigns tending to diſturb the public tranquillity, but who ſhall not be thought worthy of death, ſhall be ſent to work, with a chain at his foot, for ſix months.

6. Every ſtranger in the ſituation of the article preceding, ſhall be ſent out of the colony as a bad ſubject.

7. In every commune of the colony, where there exiſt municipal adminiſtrations, all the citizens, male and female, which inhabit them, whatever their qualities or condition, muſt provide themſelves with cards of ſafety.

This card ſhall contain the name, ſurname, domicile, ſtate, profeſſion, and quality, age and ſex, of thoſe who bear it.

It ſhall be ſigned by the mayor and commiſſary of the quarter where the perſon inhabits.

It ſhall be renewed every ſix months, on paying a dollar, by each individual: the ſums thus ariſing to be applied to the communal expenſe.

8. It is expreſsly forbidden to the municipal adminiſtrations to give cards to any one who has not an eſtate or profeſſion, well-known irreproachable conduct, and certain means of exiſtence.

All thoſe who cannot fulfil the neceſſary conditions ſtrictly ſhall, if creoles, be ſent to till the ground, or, if ſtrangers, be ſent away from the colony.

9. Every mayor or officer of police, who, by negligence, or to favour vice, ſhall have ſigned and delivered a card of ſafety to an individual who is not qualified to obtain it, ſhall be caſhiered and impriſoned one month.

10. Fifteen days after the publication of the preſent arrêt, every perſon found without a card of ſafety, if a creole, ſhall be ſent to culture; if a ſtranger, ſent out of the colony, unleſs he prefers ſerving in the troops of the line.

11. Every domeſtic, who, before leaving the houſe where he has ſerved, ſhall not have been thought worthy a certificate of good behaviour, ſhall be declared incapable of receiving a card of ſafety. Any perſon, who, to favour him, ſhall give him one, ſhall be impriſoned one month.

12. Fifteen days after the publication of the preſent arrêt, all managers or conductors of plantations are charged to ſend an exact liſt of all the cultivators of every age and ſex in their plantations, under pain of being impriſoned eight days.

Every conductor or manager is the principal guard of the plantation; he is declared perſonally reſponſible for every kind of diſorder committed there, and for the idleneſs and vagrancy of the cultivators.

13. A month after the publication of this arrêt, all the commanders of quarters are required to ſend the liſt of the cultivators of every plantation

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plantation of their quarters to the commanders of circles, on pain of being caſhiered.

14. The commanders of circles are required to ſend liſts of all the plantations of their circles to the generals under the orders of whom they are, without delay, under pain of diſobedience.

Theſe liſts, depoſited in the archives of the government, will ſerve for the future as an immutable baſis for the fixing of the cultivators with reſpect to the inhabitants.

15. Every manager or conductor of a plantation, where a ſtranger cultivator ſhall have taken refuge, is required to denounce him to the captain or commander of the ſection, within twenty-four hours, under pain of eight days impriſonment.

16. Every captain or commandant of a ſection, who by negligence ſhall have left a ſtrange cultivator more than three days in a plantation, in his ſection, ſhall be caſhiered.

17. Vagrant cultivators thus arreſted ſhall be conducted by the military to their own habitations. They ſhall be recommended to the peculiar inſpection of the conductors or managers, and thus ſhall for three months have no paſſport to go out of the plantation.

18. It is forbidden to any ſoldier to go to any plantation or private houſe in the town. Thoſe who wiſh to work, and have obtained their officer's permiſſion, ſhall be employed at labours for the republic, and paid according to their labour.

19. It is forbidden to any ſoldier to go to any plantation unleſs to ſee his father or his mother. If he fails to return to his corps at the hour appointed, he ſhall be puniſhed, according to the caſe, conformably to military law.

20. Every perſon convicted of having diſturbed or attempted to diſturb a family, ſhall be denounced to the civil and military authorities, who ſhall give an account of it to the governor, who will decide according to the caſe.

21. My order relative to culture, given at Port Republicain, 20th Vendemiaire, year 9, ſhall be executed in its form and tenour. It is enjoined to the military commanders to look into it, and ſee that it is executed with rigour, and literally, and whatever is not contrary to the preſent proclamation.

The preſent proclamation ſhall be printed, tranſcribed upon the adminiſtrative and judicial regiſters, read, publiſhed, and poſted where need is; and beſides inſerted in the official bulletin of St. Domingo.

A copy ſhall be ſent to each of the miniſters of worſhip, to be read to their pariſhioners after maſs.

All generals, military commanders, and all civil authorities in the departments, are enjoined to enforce the moſt ſevere, full, and entire execution of its ſpirit and regulations, upon their perſonal reſponſibility, and under pain of diſobedience.

Given at Cape Français, 4th Frimaire, year 10 (November 25, 1801).

(Signed) Touſſaint Louverture.

Proclamation of the Firſt Conſul of France to the Inhabitants of St. Domingo; dated Paris, 8th Nov. 1801.

Inhabitants of St. Domingo,

WHATEVER your origin or your colour, you are all French, you are all free, and all equal

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in the ſight of God, and in the eſtimation of the republic.

France has been, like St. Domingo, a prey to factions, torn by civil and foreign wars. But all has changed; all people have embraced the French, and have ſworn towards them peace and amity; all the French have embraced each other alſo, and have ſworn to be all friends and brothers. Come alſo, embrace the French, and rejoice to ſee again your friends and your brothers of Europe.

The government ſends you the captain-general Leclerc: he has brought with him great forces for protecting you againſt your enemies, and againſt the enemies of the republic. If it be ſaid to you theſe forces are deſtined to raviſh from you your liberty; anſwer, "The republic will not permit, it to be taken away from us."

Rally round the captain-general. He brings you abundance and peace. Rally all of you around him. Whoever ſhall dare to ſeparate himſelf from the captain-general will be a traitor to his country, and the indignation of the republic will devour him, as the fire devours your dried canes.

Done at Paris, in the palace of the government, the 17th Brumaire, year 10 of the French republic (Nov. 8, 1801).

The firſt conſul
(Signed) Bonaparte.
By the firſt conſul,
The ſecretary of ſtate,
(Signed) H. B. Maret.

To Citizen Touſſaint Louverture, General in Chief of the Army of St Domingo.

Citizen general,

Peace with England, and all the powers of Europe, which places the republic in the firſt degree of greatneſs and power, enables, at the ſame time, the government to direct its attention to St. Domingo. We ſend thither citizen Leclerc, our brother-in-law, in quality of captain-general, as firſt magiſtrate of the colony. He is accompanied with the neceſſary forces to make the ſovereignty of the French people be reſpected. It is under theſe circumſtances that we are diſpoſed to hope that you will prove to us and to all France the ſincerity of the ſentiments you have conſtantly expreſſed in the different letters you have written to us. We have conceived an eſteem for you, and we wiſh to recogniſe and proclaim the great ſervices you have rendered to the French people. If their colours fly on St. Domingo, it is to you and your brave blacks that they are indebted. Called by your talents, and the force of circumſtances, to the firſt command, you have deſtroyed the civil war, put a ſtop to the perſecutions of ſome ferocious men, reſtored to honour the religion and worſhip of God, from whom all things come. The conſtitution that you have formed, though containing many good things, contains others which are contrary to the dignity and the ſovereignty of the French people, of which St. Domingo forms but a part.

The circumſtances in which you are placed, ſurrounded on all ſides by enemies, without the mother-country being able to ſuccour or to feed you, have rendered legitimate the articles of that conſtitution, which otherwiſe could not be ſo. But now that circumſtances are ſo happily changed, you will be the firſt

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firſt to render homage to the ſovereignty of the nation, which reckons you among the number of the moſt illuſtrious citizens, by the ſervices you have rendered to it, and by the talents and the force of character with which nature has endowed you. A contrary conduct would be irreconcilable with the idea we have conceived of you. It would deprive you of your numerous claims to the gratitude and good offices of the republic, and would dig under your feet a precipice, which, while it ſwallowed you up, would contribute to the miſery of thoſe brave blacks, whoſe courage we love, and whom we ſhould be ſorry to puniſh for rebellion.

We have made known to your children, and to their preceptor, the ſentiments by which we are animated.—We ſend them back to you. Aſſiſt with your councils, your influence, and your talents, the captain-general. What can you deſire?—the freedom of the blacks? You know that in all the countries we have been in, we have given it to the people who had it not. Do you deſire conſideration, honours, fortune? It is not, after the ſervices you have rendered, the ſervices you can ſtill render, with the particular ſentiments we have for you, that you ought to be doubtful with reſpect to your conſideration, your fortune, and the honours that await you.

Make known to the people of St. Domingo, that the ſolicitude which France has always evinced for their happineſs has often been rendered impotent by the imperious circumſtances of war; that men come from the continent to agitate and nouriſh factions, were the produce of the factions which themſelves deſtroyed the country; that, in future, peace, and the power of the government, enſure their proſperity and freedom. Tell them, that, if liberty be to them the firſt of wants, they cannot enjoy it, but with the title of French citizens; and that every act contrary to the intereſt of the country, the obedience they owe to the government, and the captain-general, who is the delegate of it, would be a crime againſt the national ſovereignty, which would eclipſe their ſervices, and render St. Domingo the theatre of a wretched war, in which fathers and children would maſſacre each other.

And you, general, recollect, that, if you are the firſt of your colour that attained ſuch great power, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his bravery and his military talents, you are alſo, before God and us, the principal perſon reſponſible for their conduct.

If there be diſaffected perſons, who ſay to the individuals that have played a principal part in the troubles of St. Domingo, that we are coming to aſcertain what they have done during the times of anarchy, aſſure them that we ſhall take cogniſance of their conduct only in this laſt circumſtance; and that we ſhall not recur to the paſt, but to find out the traits that may have diſtinguiſhed them in the war carried on againſt the Spaniards and Engliſh, who have been our enemies.

Rely, without reſerve, on our eſteem; and conduct yourſelf as one of the principal citizens of the greateſt nation in the world ought to do.

The firſt conſul, Bonaparte.

Paris, 17th Brumaire
(8th Nov.)

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Public Edict, addreſſed by the Hoppo, or Receiver-General, of the Cuſtoms, at Canton, for the Information of the Merchants appointed to trade with foreign Nations.

WHEREAS I have received advices from his excellency the Fooyuen, ſetting forth, that "The ſhips of foreign nations have long ſince been permitted to import at Whampou, and Macao, in the province of Quantong, for the purpoſe of carrying on a trade by the free interchange of thoſe commodities which were in demand on the one hand, and ſuperfluous on the other.

"From this general rule, the article of opium was excepted; a ſubſtance of whoſe compoſition we are acquainted, but which is of a violent and powerful nature, and poſſeſſes a fœtid and odious flavour; being, however, remarkable at the ſame time for a quality of exciting and raiſing the ſpirits, it has been ſought after, and purchaſed by perſons without fixed homes, or profeſſions, who, having prepared an extract from it, opened ſhops for this branch of traffic.

"The uſe of opium originally prevailed only among vagrants, and diſreputable perſons, who aſſociated together for the purpoſe of partaking of this ſubſtance; but it has ſince extended itſelf among the members and deſcendants of reputable families, ſtudents, as well as officers of government, who, infatuated in their attachment to this drug, make an habitual uſe of it.

"Their inducement on this occaſion appears to be the power which this ſubſtance communicates to thoſe who partake of it, of not cloſing their eyes for entire nights, and ſpending them in the gratification of impure and ſenſual deſires, whereby their reſpective duties and occupation are neglected; when this habit becomes eſtabliſhed by frequent repetition, it gains an entire aſcendant, and the conſumer of opium is not only unable to forbear the daily uſe of it; but, on paſſing the accuſtomed hour, he is immediately ſeized with pains in the head, and a feveriſh heat; cannot refrain from tears, or command himſelf in any degree. For relief, therefore, from theſe painful ſymptoms, and to regain his wonted health, he has neceſſarily recourſe to the ſame pernicious ſubſtance.

"Wher at length, the gradual and progreſſive effects of this poiſon have pervaded the lungs, and the whole bodily frame, the ſufferers, with the pale and ſickly hue of doves, or ſmall fluttering birds, are no longer within the reach of medical aſſiſtance; deſirous, though in vain, of quitting ſo dreadful a practice, they would willingly end it with their lives, by tearing out their entrails in deſpair.

"The extraordinary expenſe of this article is farther to be noticed, each mace weight of which, in the extract, is exchanged for eight or nine maces in money, and the conſtant uſe of it raiſes at the ſame time an extraordinary appetite for other kinds of food, which the fortunes of the bulk of the community are unable to ſatisfy, and are therefore in the courſe of a few years wholly dilapidated, and waſted away; of theſe, the infirm and weak periſh gradually from want and hunger, while the ſtrong and vigorous become thieves and robbers; the ruin of either being equally certain and inevitable.

"Others again, among the deluded

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ded and miſjudging people, from trifling cauſes, or abſurd conceits, take the premature reſolution of ſwallowing a decoction of opium in wine; thus ending their exiſtence by means of readier acceſs, than are the generality of vegitable ſubſtances eſteemed poiſonous and deſtructive to the human frame.

"The pernicious effects ariſing from the uſe of this ſubſtance, were formerly confined to Fokien, and Quantong; but have ſpread, in the courſe of time, through the other provinces of the empire, where the eagerneſs after the traffic, and conſumption of this article, have even exceeded that of the firſt introducers.

"Thus it is, that foreigners, by the means of a vile excrementitious ſubſtance, derive from this empire the moſt ſolid profits and advantages; but that our countrymen ſhould blindly purſue this deſtructive and enſnaring vice, even till death is the conſequence, without being undeceived, is indeed a fact, odious and deplorable in the higheſt degree.

"Being now deſirous of oppoſing the growing evil, for which it appeared neceſſary to revert to the ſources from which it ſprung, we diſcover, by careful inveſtigation, that the article of opium is imported by foreigners, and gains admittance into the empire through the Bocca Tigris, whence, either by the pilot-veſſels, and armed guard-boats, that are ſtationed there, it is conveyed up the river, to Shen-ſhin (Dane's iſland), or, by the means of ſmall craft, it is landed by degrees at Macao, and thence conveyed privately to the capital, while the cuſtom-houſe officers and guards, at the different ſtations, though well acquainted with the tranſaction, ſuffer it to paſs without examination or inquiry, being doubtleſſly bribed to a large amount for that purpoſe.

"If the utmoſt endeavours are not now made to cut away the root and branches of this evil, to what extent may they not proceed? We therefore publiſh theſe general orders, for the information of all the mandarines civil and military, at the different ſtations and diſtricts of this province, that they may vigorouſly examine into and puniſh the commiſſion of this offence whenever it occurs; and at the ſame time we deſire of his excellency the Hoppo, to iſſue poſitive orders and injunctions to the officers, attendants, and guards, of the ſeveral cuſtom-houſes in his department, that ſhould henceforth any pilot-veſſels, guard-boats, or fiſhermen, privately take on board thoſe pieces of mould or earth denominated opium, a ſtrict ſearch and inveſtigation ſhall be made, and the offenders apprehended and conveyed to the preſence of the magiſtrate, to undergo the puniſhment that may be thought adequate to their guilt.

"If, notwithſtanding theſe our orders, bribes are again accepted, and the paſſage of this article connived at, it ſhall be traced with the utmoſt exactneſs and rigour, in the diſtricts and ſtations through which it had been tranſported, that no pains may have been ſpared to produce a thorough reformation and amendment in theſe reſpects.—Should any farther mode or regulation appear, that might tend to enforce or render more effectual theſe prohibitions and reſtrictions, we requeſt of his excellency the Hoppo to give us due information thereof, in his reply to this our communication to him."

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On receiving the foregoing letter, we made due inquiries, reſpecting the introduction of the ſubſtance denominated opium, and find that it is indeed imported into this country by foreign veſſels; wherefore we have iſſued orders to the ſuperintendant of the cuſtom-houſe at the port of Macao, to be communicated to the chief foreign reſidents, and the commanders of veſſels belonging to that city, notifying our determination to prohibit the entrance of the article of opium into that port, as well as our general orders to make every exertion to diſcover and inform us of it, whenever it takes place.

Having replied to his excellency the Fooyuen's communication, I proceed to extend the above orders to the Hong merchants, to which it behoves them to pay ſtrict and unreſerved obedience, and communicate them to the chief Supercargo of foreign nations, that they may enforce the obſervance of our prohibition of the importation of opium on board the ſhips of their reſpective nations. But ſhould, nevertheleſs any ſhip hereafter import the article, none of the Hong merchants will be ſo imprudent or abſurd as to become ſecurity for the ſhip, or undertake the diſpoſal of her cargo, as I ſhould, in ſuch event, immediately report their conduct to the viceroy and Fooyuen, by whom the merchants will be rigorouſly examined, and puniſhed for the offence, without any mitigation or excuſe being admitted. The Hong merchants ſhall, according to cuſtom, reply hereto, and make known to us their obedience to our commands.

Given at Canton the 16th day of the 11th moon, of the 4th year of kiaking.

CHARACTERS.

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CHARACTERS.

A Tribute to the Memory of Gilbert Wakefield, by Dr. Aiken. From the Monthly Magazine.

LITERATURE has ſuſtained a ſevere loſs, by the death of Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. whom a fever carried off on September the 9th, in the 46th year of his age, to the unſpeakable regret of his family and friends. A perſon in various reſpects ſo diſtinguiſhed is a proper ſubject for the contemplation of ſurvivors; and he had deſerved too well of the public not to be entitled to honourable and affectionate commemoration.

Mr. Wakefield in "Memoirs of his own Life," publiſhed in 1792, has informed the world of all the circumſtances attending his education and paſſage through life down to that period, with a minuteneſs and frankneſs which render his work a very curious and entertaining piece of biography. I ſhall not make any tranſcripts from it, but, confining myſelf to a ſlight ſketch of the leading events, ſhall take that view of his character and conduct which ſuggeſts itſelf to the reflection of a friendly but not a prejudiced byſtander.

Gilbert Wakefield was born, on February 22, 1756, at Nottingham, of which town his father was one of the parochial clergy. An uncommon ſolidity and ſerioufneſs of diſpoſition marked him from infancy, together with a power of application, and thirſt after knowledge, which accelerated his progreſs in juvenile ſtudies. In his grammatical courſe he paſſed under the tuition of ſeveral maſters, the laſt and moſt reſpectable of whom was the rev. Mr. Wooddeſon, of Kingſton-upon-Thames, to which pariſh his father was then removed. He was uſed, however, to lament that he had not poſſeſſed the advantages of an uniform education at one of thoſe public ſchools, which undoubtedly, whatever may be their dangers and deficiences, effect the point at which they excluſively aim, that of laying a ſolid foundation for claſſical erudition in its moſt exact form. In 1772 he was entered as a ſcholar of Jeſus-college, Cambridge; and it was ever a topic of thankfulneſs to him, that he became a member of that univerſity, in which the love of truth met with ſome encouragement from a ſpirit of liberal inquiry, rather than of that which was devoted either to ſupine indolence, or to the paſſive inculcation of opinions ſanctioned by authority. During the firſt years his attention was chiefly fixed upon claſſical ſtudies, always his favourites; and he was excited only by emulation and academical requiſition to aim at that proficiency in mathematical

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matical knowledge which bears so high a value at Cambridge. Yet, while he confesses himself destitute of a genuine taste for speculations of this kind, he scruples not to declare the infinite superiority, in point of grandeur and sublimity, of mathematical philosophy to classical lucubrations. In 1776 he took his degree of B. A. on which occasion he was nominated to the second post among seventy-five candidates; and soon after, he was elected to a fellowship of his college. In the same year he published a small collection of Latin poems, with a few critical notes on Homer, at the university-press. If not highly excellent, they were sufficient to establish the claim of a young man to more than ordinary acquaintance with the elegance of literature. He had already obtained a knowledge of the Hebrew language, as preparatory to those theological studies which now became his most serious occupation; and it may safely be affirmed that no man ever commenced them with a mind more determined upon the unbiassed search after truth, and the open assertion of it when discovered. The foundation which he laid for his inquiries was an accurate knowledge of the phraseology of the Scriptures, acquired by means of attention to the idiom in which they were written. As at this time some of his most esteemed academical friends manifested their dissatisfaction with the articles of the church of England by a conscientious refusal of subscription, it cannot be doubted that scruples on this point had already taken possession of his mind; and so far had his convictions proceeded, that he has stigmatized his compliance with the forms requisite for obtaining deacon's orders, which he received in 1778, as "the most disingenuous action of his whole life." If, indeed, he could receive consolation from the practice of others, there were several of his intimate associates, who, by a superiority to such scruples, have since risen to opulence and distinction in the church, without betraying any uneasiness for a similar acquiescence.

Mr. Wakefield left college after ordination, and engaged in a curacy at Stockport, in Cheshire, whence he afterwards removed to a similar situation in Liverpool. He performed the duties of his office with seriousness and punctuality; but his dissatisfaction with the doctrine and worship of the church continuing to increase, he probably considered his connection with it as not likely to be durable. The disgust he felt at what he saw of the practice of privateering, and the slave-trade, in the latter place of his residence, also awakened in his mind that humane interest in the rights and happiness of his fellow-creatures, which has made so conspicuous a part of his character. The American war did not tend to augment his attachment to the political administration of his country: in short, he became altogether unfit to make one of that body, the principal business of which, in the opinion of many, seems to be, acting as the satellites of existing authority, however exerted. His marriage, in 1779, to Miss Watson, neice of the rector of Stockport, was soon followed by an invitation to undertake the post of classical tutor at the dissenting academy at Warrington, with which he complied. That he was regarded as a very valuable acquisition to this institution—that he was exemplary in the discharge of his duty, and

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and equally gained the attachment of his pupils, and the friendſhip and eſteem of his colleagues—the writer of this account can from his own knowledge atteſt. Being now freed from all clerical ſhackles, he began his career as a theological controverſialiſt, and, it muſt be confeſſed, with an acrimony of ſtyle which was lamented by his friends, and which laid him open to the reproach of his enemies. It is no there intended to vindicate what the writer himſelf cannot but diſapprove; but the real and ſubſtantial kindneſs of Mr. Wakefield's temper, and the benevolence of his heart, were ſuch, that this apparent contradiction muſt be ſolved by his warmth of zeal in what he thought the cauſe of truth, and perhaps by a familiarity with ſcholaſtic debates, which rendered him in ſome meaſure callous to the uſe, or rather abuſe, of vituperative expreſſions from the preſs. In diſputations by word of mouth no man was more calm and gentle, more patient in hearing, or more placid in replying; and if, in his writings, he has without heſitation or delicacy beſtowed his cenſures, he has been equally liberal and decided in his praiſe. His applauſes evidently came from the heart, free and unfeigned, for envy did not poſſeſs a ſingle particle in his compoſition; nor has he withheld them when he thought them deſerved by particular laudable qualities, even in characters which he could not regard with general approbation. No man, perhaps, ever more fully gave way to the openneſs of his diſpoſition in ſpeaking the whole truth concerning men and things, unmoved by common conſiderations; whence it is not to be wondered at, that he frequently rendered himſelf more obnoxious to antagoniſts than the caſe eſſentially required, and rouſed prejudices which a more guarded conduct would have left dormant. A ſentence which, in his Memoirs, he has quoted from Aſgill, expreſſes (as it was probably meant to do) the ſpirit with which he wrote: "A blunt author, in purſuit of truth, *knows no man* after the fleſh, till his chaſe is over. For a man to *think* what he *writes*, may beſpeak his *prudence*; but to *write* what he *thinks*, beſt opens his principles."

We ſhall not, in this ſketch, attempt to give an account of all his publications, many of them ſmall in bulk and temporary in their application. The moſt important of his theological labours will be allowed to be thoſe in which he employed his ſingular erudition in the explanation of Scripture. Of theſe the firſt was, "A New Tranſlation of the Firſt Epiſtle of Paul, the Apoſtle, to the Theſſalonians," printed in 1781. It was followed in the next year by "A New Tranſlation of St. Matthew, with Notes, critical, philological, and explanatory," 4to. a work which obtained much applauſe, and amply diſplayed the extent of his reading, and the facility with which his memory called up its repoſited ſtores for the purpoſe of illuſtration or parallelism. At this time he likewiſe augmented his fund for Scripture interpretation by the acquiſition of various Oriental dialects. After quitting Warrington, at the diſſolution of the academy, he took up his reſidence ſucceſſively at Bramcote, in Nottinghamſhire, at Richmond, and at Nottingham, upon the plan of taking a few pupils, and purſuing at his leiſure thoſe ſtudies to which he became continually more attached. While in the firſt

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of theſe ſituations, he publiſhed the firſt volume of "An Enquiry into the Opinions of the Chriſtian Writers of the firſt three Centuries concerning the Perſon of Jeſus Chriſt," a learned and elaborate performance, but which did not meet with encouragement ſufficient to induce him to proceed in the deſign. A painful diſorder in his left ſhoulder, with which he was attacked in 1786, and which harraſſed him for two years, interrupted the courſe of his employments; and he could do no more for letters during that period, than alleviate his ſufferings by drawing up ſome remarks upon the Georgics of Virgil and the poems of Gray, which he publiſhed with editions of thoſe delightful compoſitions. As his health returned, his theological purſuits were reſumed, and he again engaged in the field of controverſy. He alſo, in 1789, made a commencement of a work, which promiſed much, as well for his reputation, as for the advantage of ſacred literature. It was "an Union of Theological and Claſſical Learning, illuſtrating the Scriptures by Light borrowed from the Philology of Greece and Rome." Under the title of "Silva Critica" three parts of this performance have iſſued from the univerſity preſs of Cambridge.

The formation of a diſſenting college at Hackney, which, it was hoped, by the powerful aid of the metropolis, would become both more conſiderable and more permanent than former inſtitutions of a like kind, produced an invitation to Mr. Wakefield to undertake the claſſical profeſſorſhip. With this he thought proper to comply, and accordingly, in 1790, he quitted his abode at Nottingham, and removed to Hackney, upon the plan of joining with public tuition the inſtruction of private pupils. He has himſelf informed the public that "both of theſe anchors failed him, and left his little bark again afloat on the ocean of life." It is neither neceſſary nor deſirable to revive the memory of differences between perſons really reſpectable and well-intentioned, but under the influence of different habits and views of things. We ſhall confine ourſelves to a remark or two.

Mr. Wakefield was a perſon who derived his opinions entirely from the ſource of his own reaſon and reflection, and it will not be eaſy to name a man who ſtood more ſingle and inſulated in this reſpect throughout life than he. Although his principles had induced him to renounce his clerical office in the church of England, and he had become a *diſſenter* from her doctrine and worſhip, yet he was far from uniting with any particular claſs of thoſe who are uſually denominated *diſſenters*. He had an inſuperable repugnance to their mode of performing divine ſervice; and he held in no high eſtimation the theological and philoſophical knowledge which it has been the principal object of their ſeminaries of education to communicate. It has already been obſerved, that the baſis of his own divinity was philology. Claſſical literature, therefore, as containing the true rudiments of all other ſcience, was that on which he thought the greateſt ſtreſs ſhould be laid, in a ſyſtem of liberal education. This point he inculcated with an earneſtneſs which probably appeared ſomewhat dictatorial to the conductors of the inſtitution.

Farther, in the progreſs of his ſpeculations, he had been led to form notions concerning the expediency and

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and propriety of public worſhip, extremely different from thoſe of every body of Chriſtians, whether in ſects or eſtabliſhments; and as he was incapable of thinking one thing and practiſing another, he had ſufficiently made known his ſentiments on this ſubject, as well in converſation, as by abſtaining from attendance upon every place of religious aſſembly. They who were well acquainted with him, knew that in his own breaſt piety was one of the moſt predominant affections; but the aſſembling for ſocial worſhip had for ſo many ages been regarded as the moſt powerful inſtrument for the ſupport of general religion, that to diſcourage it was conſidered as of dangerous example, eſpecially in a perſon engaged in the education of youth. Notwithſtanding, therefore, his claſſical inſtructions in the college were received by the ſtudents almoſt with enthuſiaſtical admiration, and conferred high credit on the inſtitution, a diſſolution of his connection with it took place in the ſummer of 1791.

The ſubſequent publication of his pamphlet on Public Worſhip deprived him (as he ſays) of the only two private pupils he expected. From that period he continued to reſide at Hackney, in the capacity of a retired man of letters, employing his time partly in the education of his own children, partly in the compoſition of works, which will perpetuate his name among thoſe who have cultivated literature with moſt ardour and ſucceſs. His "Tranſlation of the New Teſtament, with Notes," 3 vol. 8vo. appeared towards the cloſe of 1791, and was very reſpectably patronized. In language it preſerves as much as poſſible of the old verſion. Its numerous deviations from that in ſenſe, will be regarded as happy alterations or bold innovations, according to the prepoſſeſſions of the reader. A long liſt might be given of his ſucceeding labours, but we ſhall only particularize ſome of the moſt conſiderable. He printed (no longer at the Cambridge-preſs) two more parts of his "Silva Critica." He gave a new edition, much corrected, of his "Tranſlation of the New Teſtament;" and beſides, proved his zeal for Chriſtianity, by enlarging a former work "On the Evidences of the Chriſtian Religion," and by replying to Thomas Paine's attack upon it in his "Age of Reaſon."

To the works of Pope, as our moſt cultivated Engliſh poet, and the moſt perfect example of that ſplendour and felicity of diction which is not attained without much ſtudy of the poetic art, Mr. Wakefield paid particular attention. It was his deſign to have publiſhed, a complete edition of his works; but after he had printed the firſt volume, the ſcheme was rendered abortive by Dr. Wharton's edition. He, however, printed a ſecond volume, entitled, "Notes on Pope," and alſo gave a new edition of Pope's "Iliad and Odyſſey." In theſe publications he diſplayed all that variety of compariſon and illuſtration, that power of tracing a poetical thought thro' different authors, with its ſucceſſive ſhades and improvements, and that exquiſite feeling of particular beauties, which diſtinguiſh him as an annotator of the writers of Greece and Rome.

As a claſſical editor he appeared in a ſelection from the Greek tragedians, in editions of Horace, Virgil, Bion, and Moſchus, and, finally, in his

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his "Lucretius," a vaſt performance, which alone might ſeem the labour of many induſtrious years. Of his character, as a man of letters, I have been favoured with the following eſtimate by an able judge, the Rev. E. Cogan, of Cheſhunt.

"In extent of erudition, particularly if an acquaintance with the Oriental languages be taken into the account, he was perhaps inferior to no man of the preſent age; and they who have been conſidered as having had the advantage over him in ſome of the leſs important *minutiæ* of Greek literature, have probably limited their attention to fewer objects, and certainly commenced their literary courſe with a more advantageous preparation. In conjectural criticiſm he exhibits much of the character of Bentley and Markland: men whom he eſteemed according to their high deſerts in that ſpecies of learning to which his own mind was peculiarly directed. Like theſe illuſtrious ſcholars, he is always learned, ſometimes bold, and frequently happy. Like them he had a mind which diſdained to be held in a ſervile ſubjection to authority; and in defiance of eſtabliſhed readings, which too often ſubſtitute the dreams of tranſcribers for the gems of antiquity, he followed, without fear, wherever reaſon and probability ſeemed to lead the way. In his earlier critical works he exhibited, amidſt ſome errors which his riper judgement diſcarded, the promiſe of his future greatneſs; and even his faults were the infirmities of genius; they flowed from that ardour and enthuſiaſm which cannot always wait for the ſlow deciſions of cool inquiry. They were faults which, though they afforded a ſmall conſolation to dull malignity, did not diminiſh his praiſe in the eſtimation of one ſolid and impartial judge. His favourite ſtudy was poetry, and in an extenſive acquaintance with the ancient poets, both Greek and Roman, few men ſince the revival of letters have equalled him, and no one ever ſurpaſſed him in the perception of their beauties. When he applies to them the hand of conjecture, he rarely fails to give new ſpirit and animation by his touch; and where we are obliged to diſſent from his corrections, we are ſometimes ſorry for the credit of the poet that he does not appear to have written what the critic has ſuggeſted. He was peculiarly fond of tracing an elegance of poetical expreſſion through the various modifications which it aſſumed in the hands of different writers, and in the illuſtration of ancient phraſeology he did not overlook the poets of his own country, with many of whom he was very familiar. His great work is undoubtedly his edition of "Lucretius," a work which ignorance may deſpiſe, at which malice may carp, and hireling ſcribblers may rail, but which will rank with the labours of Heinſius, Gronovius, Burman, and Heyne, as long as literature itſelf ſhall live. It will ſhare the prediction with which Ovid has graced the memory of the great poet himſelf,

Carmina ſublimis tunc ſunt peritura Lucreti,
Exitio terras cum dabit una dies.

Beſides its critical merit, it exhibits the richeſt diſplay of the flowers of poetry that ever was preſented to the world, and will amply reward the peruſal of every man who has ſenſibility to reliſh the fineſt touches of human genius.

"Mr. Wakefield, even before this

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this immortal ſpecimen of his talents, was deſervedly held in the higheſt eſtimation by the literati of Germany; and if his honours at home have not equalled his reputation abroad, the candid mind will eaſily find the explanation of this phenomenon in the violence of political party, and the mean jealouſy which has too often diſgraced the ſcholars of Great Britain. The name of Bentley is connected with proof enough of the juſtice of this inſinuation."

I ſhall now proceed to an incident of his life which will be viewed with regret by the ingenuous of all parties: the *additional* ſenſations it inſpires will, of courſe, be different according to the particular ſentiments of individuals. It has already been hinted that Mr. Wakefield, from the time of his reſidence at Liverpool, had begun to imbibe a deteſtation of that policy which trampled upon the rights of mankind, and was founded upon unfeeling avarice and unprincipled ambition. His ſtudy of Chriſtianity more and more convinced him that the maxims of the world and thoſe of religion were in direct oppoſition: and, in common with many other excellent and learned men, he became perſuaded of the abſolute incompatibility of war with the Chriſtian character. He had moreover received thoſe principles of the origin and end of government, which, however they may now be regarded, were once thought fundamental to the Britiſh Conſtitution, and the baſis of all civil liberty. He had occaſionally, in the political conteſts of his country, publicly expreſſed his opinions upon theſe ſubjects; but the French revolution was an event calculated to call forth all his ardour in the cauſe. His ſanguine temper led him to conſider it as the undoubted common cement of a better order of things, in which rational liberty, equitable policy, and pure religion, would finally become triumphant. He watched its progreſs with incredible intereſt, excuſed its unhappy deviations, and abhorred the combination of arbitrary power, which threatened its deſtruction. It was impoſſible that he ſhould refrain from employing his pen on the occaſion, or that he ſhould do it with a "cold and unperforming hand." In his "Remarks on the General Orders of the Duke of York," he had arraigned the juſtice of the war with France in terms which are ſuppoſed to have exerciſed the utmoſt forbearance of the miniſtry. But in his "Reply to ſome Parts of the Biſhop of Landaff's Addreſs," he paſſed thoſe limits. From the ſyſtematic progreſs in reſtraining the free communication of political opinions, which may be traced in the acts of the late miniſtry, it is not unreaſonable to conclude, that a victim to the liberty of the preſs, of name and character ſufficient to inſpire a wide alarm, was really deſired. Yet, as the attorney-general ſolemnly proteſted that his proſecution of this pamphlet was ſpontaneous, and ſolely dictated to him by the heinous and dangerous nature of its contents, it would be uncandid to call his aſſertion in queſtion. A man of ſenſe, however, may be allowed to ſmile at the notion of real danger to ſupreme power, ſupported as well by public opinion, as by every active energy of the ſtate, from a private writer, arguing upon principles ſo little applicable to the practice of the world, as thoſe of the goſpel. Farther, a man of a truly liberal and generous mind will perhaps view, not without

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out indignation, the thunders of the law hurled upon a head diſtinguiſhed for virtue and learning, without any human allowance for well intentioned, if miſguided zeal. The attack commenced, not againſt the principal, who boldly and honeſtly came forward to avow himſelf, but againſt the agents; and the grand purport of it was ſufficiently declared by the ſuperior ſeverity with which a bookſeller was treated, who was not the editor, but only a caſual vender of the work; but who had long been obnoxious as a diſtinguiſhed publiſher of books of free inquiry. Mr. Wakefield himſelf next underwent proſecution; and his ſentence, upon conviction, was a two year's impriſonment, in Dorcheſter-gaol. There exiſts no other meaſure of puniſhment in ſuch a caſe than compariſon, and perhaps, upon the application of this rule, it will not be found inordinately ſevere. Two years abode in a priſon is, however, a moſt ſerious infliction! it is cutting off ſo much from deſirable exiſtence. Mr. Wakefield, notwithſtanding his natural fortitude, felt it as ſuch. Though, from his habits of ſobriety and ſecluſion, he had little to reſign in reſpect of the ordinary pleaſures of the world; his habits of pedeſtrian exerciſe, and his enjoyment of family comfort, were eſſentially infringed by confinement. He likewiſe found all his plans of ſtudy ſo deranged, by the want of his library, and the many incommodities of his ſituation, that he was leſs able to employ that reſource againſt tedium and melancholy than might have been expected. One powerful conſolation, however, in addition to that of a good conſcience, attended him. A ſet of warm and generous friends employed themſelves in raiſing a contribution, which ſhould not only indemnify him from any pecuniary loſs conſequent upon his proſecution, but ſhould alleviate his cares for the future ſupport of his family. The purpoſe was effected; and it is to be hoped that Engliſhmen will ever retain ſpirit enough to take under their protection men who have faithfully, though perhaps not with due prudence and conſideration, maintained the noble cauſe of mankind againſt the frowns of authority.

At length the tedious period elapſed, and the laſt day of May, in this year, reſtored him to liberty. He was received by his friends, many of whom had viſited him in priſon, with the moſt cordial welcome. He was endeared to them by his ſufferings, and his character was generally thought to have received a meliorating tinge of mildneſs and moderation from the reflexions which had paſſed through his mind. He formed extenſive plans for future literary labours, and he ſeemed fully capable of enjoying and benefitting that world to which he was returned. When—Oh what is man!—a fever, probably occaſioned by his anxious exertions to fix himſelf in a new habitation, cut ſhort all his proſpects. From the firſt attack he perſuaded himſelf that the termination would be fatal, and this conviction materially oppoſed every attempt of medicine in his favour. He ſurveyed death without terror, and prepared for it by tender offices to the ſurvivors.

It is preſumed that the character of Mr. Wakefield is ſufficiently developed in the preceding ſketch of his life. It may however be added, that there was in him an openneſs, a ſimplicity, a good faith, an affectionate

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tionate ardour, a noble elevation of ſoul, which irreſiſtibly made way to the hearts of all who nearly approached him, and rendered him the object of friendly attachment, to a degree almoſt unexampled.—Let this be placed in balance to all that might appear arrogant or ſelf-ſufficient, harſh, or irritable in his literary conduct! His talents were rare—his morals pure—his views exalted—his courage invincible—his integrity without a ſpot. When will the place of ſuch a man be ſupplied?

Anecdotes of Mr. Robert Bage, by Mr. Hutton. From the ſame.

MR. R. Bage was born February 29, 1728, at Darley, a hamlet in the pariſh of St. Alkmond's, Derby, where his father worked a paper-mill. Though he lived to the age of ſeventy-three, he could not celebrate more than eighteen birth-days.

His mother died ſoon after his birth, when his father removed to Derby, but kept the mill. He quickly married a ſecond wife, and, as I reſided in the ſame ſtreet, and near him, I well remember he buried her in 1732. He ſoon procured another, buried her, and ventured upon a fourth, who ſurvived him.

Robert was put to ſchool, ſo that I did not perfectly know him till 1735, when he was ſeven years old. He had made at that age ſuch a progreſs in letters, that he was the wonder of the neighbourhood; he was then in the Latin tongue. My father often held him up to me for imitation, I being much bigger and older. I was then but little acquainted with him, for he moved in a ſphere more elevated than I. At this time he was completely maſter of the manual exerciſe, and I ſaw him inſtruct ſome young men. He afterwards was trained to his father's buſineſs.

In about 1751, he married a young lady, who poſſeſſed four accompliſhments, which ſeldom meet in one woman, fortune, beauty, good ſenſe, and prudence; I might add a fifth, neceſſary for the peace of a family, good nature. I have reaſon to think he found more happineſs in domeſtic life than is uſually experienced. Having embraced the marriage ſtate, he entered upon a paper-mill, at Elford, four miles from Tamworth, which he conducted to the time of his death.

Some men's capacity opens at a late day, and ſome wither ſoon after the meridian of life, but Robert Bage's opened and ſhut with his exiſtence. His enlivening ſun ſhone with vigour during a long period of years. His talents, humanity, honour, and generoſity, appeared, through the whole of his life, conſpicuous to all who knew him. I could bring numberleſs incidents to eſtabliſh every trait of his character; but, as this would lead me into too wide a field, I ſhall confine myſelf to one or two proofs to each aſſertion. The powers of his mind were amazingly ſtrong; theſe, in the early part of his life, have already been noted. During my acquaintance with him, he learnt muſic, and the French and Italian languages, without a maſter. Being inclined, in 1760, to learn the abſtruſe branches of mathematics, he applied to Thomas Hanſon, a celebrated teacher, and ſpent a night in Birmingham once a week for inſtruction. As I

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was intimate with both, I ſometimes attended, and, before the ſcholar had been a month, I could eaſily perceive, though no adept myſelf, he was able to teach his maſter, nay, even ſet him faſt. Perhaps part of this victory might ariſe from the eaſy fluency with which Mr. Bage delivered himſelf, while the maſter of figures was better formed for thinking than ſpeaking.

His humanity will appear from his treatment of his ſervants, and even his horſes, who all loved him, and whom he kept to old age.

Trade, which is thought to corrupt the mind, made no ſuch impreſſion upon his. Though he laid no ſtreſs upon revelation, his dealings were ſtamped with rectitude; he remarked to me, "Fraud is beneath a man." He had no other love for money than to uſe it, or he might have left a much larger property than he did. In February, 1756, he aſked me to ſpend the evening with him. He propoſed a connexion (not a partnerſhip) which I accepted, and which continued, with ſmall variations, according to the mutations of time, till the day of his death. From that date, perhaps, I have paid him 500*l.* a year, upon the average, and always with pleaſure, which proves this ſimple point, I was treated with honour. During this long courſe of forty-five years, he never gave me one cauſe of complaint. His honour, and his peaceable temper, will farther appear, from a remark he made while we travelled in a chaiſe from Wolſey-bridge to Tamworth, in October, 1795, he had then been in partnerſhip with a perſon in another concern, near fifteen years, "that they never had one word of difference ſince they met."

His generous caſt of mind will appear from two, among many, incidents. I accidentally remarked, that "I had ſeen a diſtant relation of his, who was out of employment."—"Give him," ſays he, "upon my account (though he did not know him) five ſhillings a week till he gets into work." When the rioters, in 1791, had cruelly deſtroyed my property to a large amount, and obliged me, with my family, to run away without a ſhilling, and none durſt take us in, we drove, among other places, to the Caſtle, at Tamworth. I aſked the people of the inn if they knew me? "No."—"I have no money to pay my way, or property to pledge." Their looks fell. "I am known to Mr. Bage, of Elford, whom I will requeſt to pay my bill." Their looks and my credit roſe together. He cheerfully paid it, blamed me for not coming to his houſe, and I could never prevail upon him to accept a return.

With all theſe rich talents and rare endowments he was mild in the extreme; an enemy to no man, and, I believe, never had one himſelf.

His reaſon for becoming an author was ſingular, and ſuch as would have driven another out of authorſhip. I ſhall ſtate the cauſe, and deliver the reſult as given me by himſelf in the chaiſe abovementioned. About the year 1765, he was induced to enter into partnerſhip with three gentlemen in a wholeſale iron manufactory. The purſuit continued about fourteen years, then diſſolved, when it appeared he had loſt a ſum, which I have now forgotten, perhaps 1500*l.* Fearing the diſtreſs of mind would overcome him, he took up the pen to turn the

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ſtream of ſorrow into that of amuſement; a ſcheme worthy a philoſopher. His firſt production was Mount Heneth, in 1781, which he ſold for 30*l.* His ſucceeding works followed nearly upon the ſame terms. The public are in poſſeſſion of his writings, and have given him an ample return of praiſe. Excellent as they are, yet, in my opinion, his private letters, of which I muſt have received more than a thouſand, ſurpaſs them. They are replete with vivacity, witty turns, and fine humour, ſpontaneouſly ſpringing, without effort, from the heart.

A ſketch of this amiable man may be ſeen in Hutton's Hiſtory of Derby, 1791, where he poſſeſſes a niche among the worthies of that place. I ſhall tranſcribe the paſſage:

"If we find a pleaſure in drawing a valuable character which has left the ſtage, that pleaſure muſt be double when we treat of thoſe who ſtill adorn it; becauſe we revere both the character and the man. This, in the preſent caſe, is my pleaſing taſk. The man I now delineate is a native of Derby, but left it at an early period. He amuſes the world and himſelf with novel productions of a ſuperior claſs, as Mount Heneth, Barham Downs, the Fair Syrian, and James Wallace,* wherein is an excellent picture of life, a full diſplay of character and ſentiment. Theſe have travelled to the continent, paſſed through the Francfort preſs, and appeared to the world in a German habit.

"Although fortune never made him conſpicuous in the great world, ſhe gave him what was perferable, affluence and content. In directing a paper-mill may be found that head which is able to direct empires; that judgement, which can decide in difficult caſes; a penetration, which can fathom the human heart, and comprehend various ſyſtems of knowledge; a genius, which conſtitutes the companion for Newton in philoſophy, for Handel in muſic, for Euclid in mathematics; a maſter of the living and dead languages, and all, like the wealth of a merchant who riſes from nothing, acquired by himſelf. Nay, I ſhould even rank him with that learned body, the phyſicians, if he were not defective in the art of killing. That rectitude, which is rarely found, is here obſcured from the public eye, but is a pearl of great price, and a credit to our ſpecies. Though a diminutive figure, yet one of the moſt amiable of men; and though barely a Chriſtian, yet one of the beſt. I have known him fifty-ſix years; his friendſhip is an honour; I have long poſſeſſed it; to which I ſhall add another, by writing his name with my own. Should he frown at this liberty, I will take twice as much: ſhould he retort, I will take my revenge, by drawing a complete character; for he has amply furniſhed me with materials."

This worthy man afterwards charged me with too ſtrong a colouring. I told him in reply, I was not uſed to heap praiſe upon any man wholeſale, therefore took every expreſſion to pieces, and ſhewed him the firm foundation on which I built. He ſeemed ſatisfied, and returned a ſmile.

Four or five months prior to his death, he paid me a viſit. I was ſecretly alarmed to obſerve his countenance changed, his conſtitution breaking, as if threatening a diſſo-

* He afterwards publiſhed thoſe two admirable novels, "Man as he is," and "Man as he is not."

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lution. When we parted, I took what I thought an everlaſting farewel. As he went out of the houſe, he ſhook hands with my nephew (a boy of thirteen), and, with a ſmile, "Farewel, my dear lad, we ſhall meet again in heaven!" Though ſpoken in the jocular ſtyle, it ſeemed to indicate a ſenſibility of his approaching end.

Still declining, and attended with feveriſh ſymptoms, but ſenſible to the laſt, he left the world September 1, 1801, after a life of ſeventy-three years, ſix months, and one day.

His perſon was of a ſmalliſh ſize, about five feet three inches, and of a ſpare habit, not robuſt, but his conſtitution good.

Character of J. Caſpar Lavater. From Profeſſor Meiners's Letters on Switzerland.

I Can ſay more of Lavater, and with more confidence, than of any other learned man of Zurich, my old friend profeſſor Hottinger excepted, having ſpent the greateſt part of the three laſt days, and the whole of yeſterday with him. Lavater is one of the few men, whom I have been acquainted with, who is little ſolicitous to hide his faults, and ſtill leſs anxious to make his merits known. With regard to his moral character, it is impoſſible to ſpeak too highly of it, as his very opponents, thoſe at leaſt with whom I am acquainted, allow that his life and manners are blameleſs. A warm deſire to advance the honour of God, and the good of his fellow creatures, is, without a doubt, the principal feature in his character, and the leading motive of all he does. Next to theſe, his characteriſtic virtues are an indefatigable placability, and an inexhauſtible love for his enemies. I have often heard him talk of the talents, merits, and good qualities of his opponents with the ſame warmth as if he had been talking of the virtues of his greateſt friends. Nay, I have been a witneſs to his excuſing his enemies, and uttering wiſhes for their welfare in ſuch a manner, as to me, and I am perſuaded to every unprejudiced perſon, carried not the ſmalleſt mark of affectation along with it. I am perſuaded, too, that theſe ſentiments coſt him very little, but are more the fruit of his nature than of any troubleſome exertion. Not a blameable word of any kind, not a ſingle expreſſion of impatience of the numberleſs afflictions he has ſtruggled and ſtill has to ſtruggle with, ever eſcaped him in my preſence. On the contrary, he is perſuaded that all theſe trials are for his good, and will terminate in his happineſs. Of his talents and merits of all kinds he thinks much more modeſtly than his ridiculous admirers. He freely confeſſes that his want of the knowledge of ancient languages, and ſeveral other uſeful branches of knowledge, has been a great hindrance to him, for which reaſon no perſon more warmly recommends the ſtudy of them. In all my converſations with him, I found ſo few ſymptoms of the ſecret vanity of which he is accuſed, and of which I myſelf ſuſpected him, that I could not help blaming myſelf for my ſuſpicion. I was ſtill more ſurpriſed not to ſee, either in his perſon or converſation, any of that affected unction which is common to weak minds. Every part of him beſpeaks the man of genius, but not of that fiery and uncontroulable genius which has often led him to

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to advance extraordinary and indefenſible opinions in his works. The abuſe which has been thrown upon him for giving young men a greater opinion of their talents than thoſe talents would juſtify, and by that means leading them into abſurdities, has made him change his conduct towards them. He is ſhy of admitting them into his ſociety, and when he does it is rather reſerved and cold than over communicative. He ſpeaks quickly, and ſeems intereſted in what he ſays, but is not too hot, nor does his action paſs the bounds of moderation. He hears contradiction, and will bear it very patiently, and anſwer quietly whatever objections are made to what he ſays. Though he has no extenſive knowledge of any kind, his converſation is rendered extremely intereſting by his great abilities, and his knowledge of human nature, which his very early, and ever increaſing connection with men of all ranks and orders has given him. This explains how it comes to paſs, that notwithſtanding his various weakneſſes and wanderings, ſo many young people, as well as the greateſt part of the inhabitants of Zurich and the country round, are ſo firmly attached to him as they certainly are. His ſermons are more followed than thoſe of the moſt popular amongſt the other preachers (of whom there are many), though they are ſeldom carefully laboured compoſitions, and not always very orthodox. Their principal merit conſiſts in the pathos of his voice, action, and general elocution, which for the moſt part captivates thoſe who are not able to judge of any other merit. A great proof of the general eſteem he is held in appeared on my walking out with him: almoſt all thoſe who met us accoſted him with the greateſt reſpect, and many of the common people kiſſed his hand with a kind of filial reverence. It is indeed inconceivable what numbers of perſons of all ranks and orders, both citizens and ſtrangers, apply to him to be the judge of their controverſies. When one ſees the number of affairs which he is almoſt conſtantly immerſed in, one is ſurpriſed how he can find ſo much time to write, and very ready to admit what he aſſures is the caſe, that his writing is only a relaxation from his other employments. Amidſt all his ſingular opinions, there is none he is ſo jealous of, and ſticks ſo warmly to, as his own ſkill in phyſiognomy, by which he pretends to be able to diſcern the characters of men as well as he could do by their actions or converſation. As, however, this is a ſubject which he never touches upon before thoſe who do not believe in his intuition, we had no converſation about it. Indeed it would have been to no purpoſe, for he could not have convinced me, and I ſhould certainly have made no impreſſion upon him. What he has written or thought upon miracles heretofore I do not know, as I have not read all his writings; but it is certain, that at preſent he does not affirm either that he ever did or ever ſaw a miracle. All he contends for, which the warmeſt oppoſers of miracles will not conteſt with him, is, that men of uncommon powers can do things which thoſe of common powers cannot, and which appear contrary to the common courſe of nature.

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Memoirs of Mrs Chapone, by Mrs. Barbauld.

So may ſome gentle Muſe,
With lucky words favour my deſtined urn;
And as he paſſes turn,
And bid fair Peace be to my ſable ſhroud.

MRS. Chapone, who died at Hadley, in Middleſex, December the 25th, 1801, in her 75th year, has long been known to the public, as an elegant and highly moral writer. The firſt productions of hers, which were given to the world, were, the intereſting ſtory of "Fidelia," in the Adventurer; and a Poem, prefixed to her friend Mrs. Carter's Tranſlation of "Epictetus;" but her name only became known on the publication of a deſervedly popular work, "Letters on the Improvement of the Mind, addreſſed to a Young Lady." This was printed in 1773, and will long, it is to be hoped, maintain its place in the library of young women. It is diſtinguiſhed by ſound ſenſe, a liberal, as well as a warm, ſpirit of piety, and a philoſophy applied to its beſt uſe, the culture of the heart and affections. It has no ſhining eccentricities of thought, no peculiarities of ſyſtem; it follows experience as its guide, and is content to produce effects of acknowledged utility, by known and approved means. On theſe accounts, it is perhaps the moſt unexceptionable treatiſe, that can be put into the hands of female youth. Theſe letters are particularly excellent, in what relates to regulating the temper and feelings. Their ſtyle is pure and unaffected, and the manner grave and impreſſive. Thoſe who chooſe to compare them in this reſpect with another widely circulated publication, addreſſed, about the ſame time to young women, (Dr. Fordyce's Sermons) will probably be of opinion, that the dignified ſimplicity of the female writer is much more conſonant to true taſte, than the affected prettineſſes and conſtant glitter of the preacher. Mrs. Chapone ſoon after publiſhed a volume of Miſcellanies, containing one or two moral eſſays, and ſome elegant poems. The poems, which have the merit of many beautiful thoughts, and ſome original images, ſeem not to have been ſufficiently appreciated by the public; for they were not greatly noticed, owing perhaps to the mode of their publication. It was not then ſo common as it has been ſince, to mix new matter with old.

Mrs. Chapone's maiden name was Mulſo: her family was a reſpectable one, in Northamptonſhire. Her married life was ſhort, and not very happy. She probably alluded to her own nuptial choice, when ſhe ſpeaks in one of her poems of

"Prudence ſlow, that ever comes too late."

When left a widow, her very limited circumſtances prevented her not from enjoying a large acquaintance among the firſt circles of ſociety, who admired her for her talents, and reſpected her for her virtues.

She underſtood and reliſhed converſation. Her diſcourſe was ſeaſoned occaſionally with a vein of humour; and having the advantage (for it is an advantage) of aſſociating in early life with the beſt company, the eaſe and poliſh of the gentlewoman accompanied the talents of the writer. Her perſon was plain: but in her youth ſhe had a fine voice, and always had a ſtrong taſte for muſic. Mrs. Chapone was one of thoſe women who have ſhewn that it is poſſible to attain a correct and elegant ſtyle,

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ſtyle, without an acquaintance with the claſſics. The French and Italian ſhe underſtood; and from the latter ſhe made ſome tranſlations. Mrs. Chapone, Mrs. Montague, and another lady, who ſtands confeſſedly at the ſummit of female literature, and upon a par with the moſt diſtinguiſhed ſcholars of the other ſex, were friends and intimates: the two former have left the ſtage; but their venerable ſenior ſtill ſurvives to receive the homage of another century. Mrs. Chapone had been declining in health for many years. The loſs of a beloved niece, the lady to whom the letters were addreſſed, and of a more beloved brother to whom ſhe was united in affection and ſimilarity of taſte, haſtened the infirmities of age; and for ſome time before her death, ſhe was laid aſide from ſociety. It is not unuſual for thoſe, who in ſome period of their lives have filled a certain ſpace in the eye of the public, if they have been ſometime withdrawn from it, to glide ſilently out of life unnoticed, except by the attendants at their bedſide; ſo was it with Mrs. Chapone—But if there are thoſe of her ſex, now happy wives, and mothers, who have in any meaſure been formed to thoſe characters by the early impreſſions they may have received from her writings, they will drop a grateful tear to the memory of their benefactor, and rank her among thoſe who, in the French phraſe "have deſerved well of their country."

Hampſtead. A. L. B.

Of the Public Accommodations at St. Peterſburgh. From Storch's Picture of Peterſburg.

IN all the capitals of Europe carriages, under one form or other, ply for hire in the ſtreets, and are taken for certain fares to different diſtances. Here, where the great circuit of the town, the climate, and the pavement render ſuch an accommodation doubly neceſſary, coaches of this deſcription are not yet in uſe. Inſtead of hackney-coaches, iſvoſchtſchik [the general denomination for all drivers, coachmen, poſtilions, carmen, &c.] have their ſtands in the ſtreets, ready to drive where they are ordered, in ſummer with drojekas and in winter with ſledges. The drojeka conſiſts of a bench with ſprings under it and cuſhions upon it on four wheels, at one end of which is the horſe, and juſt behind him ſits the iſvoſchtſchik; they are otherwiſe conſtructed in various methods according to the fancy of the owner.—Thoſe at the ſervice of the public are in the ſimpleſt form; in general very neat, exceedingly light, and always gaudily painted. Two perſons at moſt can ſit on them, beſides the iſvoſchtſchik, with tolerable eaſe. Their greateſt advantage is the uncommon lightneſs of the vehicle: but this by no means makes up for their inconveniences and defects. Having no covering, and frequently affording no protection from the dirt, the rider is entirely expoſed to the weather and to be ſplaſhed all over. The want of ſides and back, and the jolting experienced in driving, whence they obtained the name of drojeka, may render an excurſion on them extremely beneficial to the health; but for people, who uſe this carriage otherwiſe than as phyſic, the motion is abſolutely tormenting. To all theſe diſagreeable circumſtances muſt be added the horrid vicinity of the iſvoſchtſchik, which,

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particularly during the church-faſts, is exceedingly offenſive to the noſe. —The ſledges for hire are not much more entitled to commendation; but the velocity with which we can go a long way in them, and the low price of this conveyance, are preponderant advantages. At the firſt beginning of the ſledge-roads a great number of boors appear from the ſurrounding diſtricts, who continue earning money all the winter through as iſvoſchtſchiks, and from the wretched condition of their horſes and ſledges, are known by the name of Ivanuſchky [Jacky]. The number of all the hackney ſledges that are run about the ſtreets is computed at upwards of three thouſand.—In the beſt frequented parts of the town are handſome ſledges with fine running horſes, of which are ſome that are worth from fourteen to fifteen hundred rubles. Driving at full ſpeed is one of the favourite winter diverſions of the Ruſſians. In the long and broad ſtreets are frequently ſeen races between two, four, ſix or more ſledges. One who has not been an eye-witneſs, can ſcarcely from an idea of the rapidity with which they glide along the plains of frozen ſnow. The dexterity likewiſe of the iſvoſchtſchiks ſtrikes every foreigner with aſtoniſhment. In the buſieſt ſtreets a prodigious number of ſledges are running acroſs each other in every direction, almoſt all of them driving very faſt, and yet it is extremely ſeldom that any accident happens. The rule is, for every one to keep to the right; and, as moſt of the ſtreets are very broad, none are prevented from driving as faſt as they chuſe. The fares of theſe hired ſledges are very different, as they are ſubject to no official regulation; the ſame diſtance for which an Ivanuſchka is content to take five kopeeks, coſts a ruble and a half or two rubles in a racing ſledge. Every iſvoſchtſchik wears a plate of tin at his back, on which is painted his number and the quarter in which the ſtand is to which he belongs.

As the bridges acroſs the Neva and the canals are not ſufficient for the communication between the various parts of the town, ferries are appointed in ſeveral places, at which boats are conſtantly lying in readyneſs, which take in a ſingle perſon for a kopeek or two. In ſpring and autumn, when the floating bridges are parted and drawn aſhore, the Neva ſwarms with boats of all ſorts and ſizes. To take your paſſage with ſome degree of gentility, you hire a boat for yourſelf or company; but any one who goes for the ſake of making obſervations on the manners and ſentiments of different ſorts of people, eſpecially the lower, may at times pick up plenty of materials for forming his judgement in the miſcellaneous and numerous company of a great barge.

The extraordinary extent of the city renders all theſe communications abſolutely neceſſary. As it would be difficult to point out a place in Europe comprehending more grand ſquares, wider ſtreets, and more numerous vacuities, it is natural to imagine that people live more diſperſed than elſewhere. It occurs every day that a perſon goes to viſit an acquaintance, whoſe houſe is more than ſix miles off; and it therefore not unfrequently happens that he makes this journey in a very different method. Thus, he ſometimes walks part of the way, till he comes to the river; here he may greatly ſhorten his road by taking a boat, and the reſt of the journey it is likely

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likely he may perform on a drojeka. All of theſe means, however, as may eaſily be ſuppoſed, are not compatible with high pretenſions to gentility; perſons of faſhion keep their own carriages, and therefore may diſpenſe with the public accommodations here mentioned.—

The ſituation of St. Peterſburg, in a northern corner of Europe, is one natural cauſe why there is not here ſuch a confluence of travellers, as in the capitals of Germany, France, and other countries. People paſſing through are ſeldom or never ſeen; whoever comes hither has almoſt always reached the place of his deſtination. Merely for the ſake of gratifying curioſity, Peterſburg, with all its remarkable objects, lies too far from the centre of poliſhed Europe. The generality of travellers deſign to make ſome ſtay here, and therefore tarry at an inn only for a ſhort ſpace. It is uſual for foreigners to bring letters of recommendation to the mercantile houſes or to ſome family, who engage houſes or lodgings for them of private owners. Hence it is that the taverns here are ſtill ſo far behind thoſe of other capitals in point of accommodations and elegance.

In the genteeler parts of the town are, however, two large hotels with roomy apartments tolerably furniſhed, an ordinary, and other conveniences, ſuch as an equipage for hire, valets de place, and the like; but they bear no compariſon with even hotels of the ſecond rank in London, Paris, Berlin, and Frankfort. The appartments and the furniture are, to ſay the beſt of them, but moderately handſome, the larder is very plain, and at the ordinary not always proviſion enough; waiters for the ſervice of the gueſts are no where found; every one is obliged immediately to hire a valet de place, or he will not be able to get a glaſs of water, and will be under the neceſſity of cleaning his own ſhoes.

To be candid, beſides the abovementioned apologies for the poorneſs of the tables at public hotels, it ſhould be obſerved, that here it is not the practice with the natives to frequent them as eating-houſes. Almoſt every Peterſburgher, who keeps no kitchen of his own, is a member of one or ſeveral of the clubs, where he finds a choice table at a very reaſonable rate, and dines in a company of his own ſelection. Even foreigners rarely dine at taverns; their letters of addreſs, or their buſineſs, or even accident ſoon procure them acquaintances, by whom, according to the ſtyle and rules of the ſignal hoſpitality that here prevails, they are invited to dinner and ſupper, ſo that in a very few days after their arrival, they are relieved from all concern about ſuch matters. In order to be able with propriety to profit by this engaging, and in Peterſburg, this innate virtue, the having a carriage is almoſt indiſpenſably neceſſary; at leaſt, the ſtranger who ſhould come on foot, eſpecially in dirty weather, would expoſe himſelf to the imputation of parſimony, or want of good breeding, or, what is worſt of all—of poverty. That this laſt is even more diſgraceful than the firſt imputation, there is no need of proving to ſuch readers as move in the polite and faſhionable world.

Foreigners have therefore the alternative either to take a ſolitary meal at their inn, or in a mixed company of ſtrangers, and on wretched fare; or to participate in affable, familiar, agreeable, and brilliant circles at

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at the plentiful tables of perſons of condition. But an equipage is by no means the ſole requiſite for gaining admittance and being greeted with a hearty welcome here. If the foreigner be emulous of the latter, he muſt play, and not be alarmed if he perceive a little tricking. Luck may indeed be for and againſt him, but the advantage will moſt probably be againſt him; for all the foreigners agree, that they play exceedingly well at Peterſburg.

Anecdotes of Frederick William, late King of Pruſſia. From M. Segur's Hiſtory of his Reign.

ALTHOUGH the experience of every age has taught that the ſucceſſors of great men do not ſupply their places—Frederick William had given his ſubjects reaſon to conceive the moſt flattering hopes. It was believed that his reign would be as glorious, and more mild, than that of his uncle;—that he would enjoy the ſame military glory, without exerciſing the ſame ſe erity.—It was recollected that his education had been intruſted to M. de Borck, an informed military man, and to M. Bequelin, a diſtinguiſhed academician. His campaign againſt the Auſtrians in the war for the ſucceſſion of Bavaria was not forgotten, nor the eulogy beſtowed on him by Frederick. This prince, ſo ſevere towards his family, ſo avaricious of praiſe, or jealous of the talents he employed; and ſo great a connoiſſeur in the art which he had perfectionated; had charged his nephew to withdraw from Bohemia, a body of the army menaced by ſuperior force; the poſition was critical; the retreat was difficult and dangerous. Frederick William performed it with equal courage and ſkill. The king, tranſported, exclaimed, as he embraced him in preſence of the army, "I no longer conſider you as my nephew, but as my ſon: you have effected all that I could have done in your place." The prince-royal, admiring the great qualities of his uncle, but diſapproving his unjuſt rigours, was ſuppoſed never to have broken his word—his probity excited confidence; it was ſaid he deſired to merit the ſurname of well-beloved.—The part which he is known to have taken in the Germanic league, augured well of his political conduct, and he had given the firſt idea of this league, which flattered the vanity of the Pruſſians, by making them the protectors of the liberty of Germany againſt the ambition of the houſe of Auſtria.—In a word, every thing conſpired to render the *début* of the new monarch eaſy and brilliant; peace reigned every where, and towards it all hearts were open. The firſt moments of his reign anſwered the general expectation; each word he dropped, every letter he wrote, and the firſt orders which he gave, repeated every where, and every where approved, ſpread an univerſal joy, and confirmed the hopes which his acceſſion to the throne had generally inſpired. Without affecting to be learned, the general opinion was, that he had ſtudied a great deal, and that he would patronize letters. His endeavours to retain the Abbé Raynal in Berlin had done him much honour, and his eagerneſs to ſee that bold and profound author, led to a belief that he loved to be told the truth.

All his intentions, all his conduct, at the commencement of his reign, were

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were mild, wise, and beneficent. It were to be wished this first zeal had continued; but, as historians we shall soon have to fulfil a rigorous duty: and to this smiling prospective, which impartiality obliges us to present, we shall be compelled to substitute the sad picture of a total abandonment, of a shameful carelessness, and of an unbounded weakness; obscenity in pleasures, intrigue in council, prodigality in expenses, blindness in choice, the most superstitious credulity, the most puerile vanity, joined to the most evident incapacity, soon assumed the place of that activity, justice, and wisdom, which, in the first ebullition of fervour, the new king had been forced to display. His zeal cooled almost as fast as the body of his illustrious predecessor; and it was not long before Prussia perceived the immense void left by this immortal shade.

Symptoms of the king's weakness were quickly perceived; he could scarcely endure, even for a short time, the constraint which he had imposed on himself. It was soon understood, that his hours of business and of retirement were regular only in appearance; that his days were idle, and his nights dedicated to infamous orgies. He had repudiated his first wife, the princess Elizabeth of Brunswick, on account of misconduct. The prudence of the princess of Hesse, his second wife, did not shelter her from disgrace: but though she was not dismissed, she suffered, perhaps, more from the public triumph of her rivals. The king had loved a madame de Rietz, celebrated for the licentiousness of her manners, the baseness of her character, and the infamy of her husband. He never could break this shameful connection, but lavished titles and treasures on this courtezan, and on a son whom she bore to him, for whose death he was inconsolable.

Notwithstanding this scandalous subjection, having become passionately enamoured of mademoiselle de Vos, the niece of count Fink, he was on the point of marrying her. This he communicated to the queen, and consulted the priests, who replied, that it was better to contract an illegal marriage, than to run incessantly from one error to another; an answer which, perhaps, degrades those that gave it, as much as him by whom it was solicited. This marriage, however, did not take place. Mademoiselle de Vos chose rather to sacrifice her virtue than the glory of her lover. But, a few years after, he renewed the same scandal more completely, by marrying the countess d'Enhoff; thus retaining three legitimate wives and one mistress, whilst he banished the French comedians from Berlin, whom he accused of corrupting the public manners. The alliance of voluptuousness and superstition, constantly astonishes reason, and is constantly renewed. At the same time that the king abandoned himself, without restraint, to the charms of his mistresses, the *Illuminati* acquired an unbounded empire over his mind: he must have been, or seemed to be, an apostle of this sect, in order to gain, or preserve, its favour; for while, on one hand, he treated the duke of Brunswick, prince Henry, Mollendorf, and even Hertzberg, Schulemburg, and Fink, who managed his affairs, coolly and without regard; he abandoned himself entirely to Welners, to Bischofswerden, to the princes of Dessaw and Wurtemberg; to Frederick of Brunswick,

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Brunſwick, the duke of Weymar, and other viſionaries, who made Moſes and Jeſus appear to him; and who, it is ſaid, carried the impoſture ſo far as, at ſupper, to trace to him the ſhadow of the ghoſt of Cæſar.

Character of Charlemagne. From Ranken's Hiſtory of France.

CHARLEMAGNE was of a robuſt and firm conſtitution, rather above the common ſtature. His perſon was altogether manly majeſtic; his countenance open and agreeable; his eyes large, lively, and engaging; his noſe aquiline, and his voice clear, though, conſidering his ſize, rather feeble.

His mental talents were more ſolid than brilliant. A comprehenſive and clear underſtanding, improved by experience, rendered his judgement deciſive, and his reſolution firm. His mind and habits were formed for extenſive buſineſs. He accounted it no trouble to riſe during the night from his bed, to exerciſe authority in civil matters; and he often adminiſtered juſtice, or gave orders to the various officers of ſtate, when he was dreſſing himſelf. His juſt diſcernment of human character made him generally happy in the choice of his public officers, and of courſe almoſt uniformly ſucceſsful in his military enterpriſes, as well as in his ordinary civil adminiſtration. He formed his plans with ſagacity and prudence, began them with caution, and in their execution was determined and vigorous.

As a monarch, there is no doubt that he ſhed much blood. Some apology, however, may be made for him. In every caſe where he engaged in war, he ſeems to have done it from a ſenſe of duty. Ambition certainly mingled its influence; for men, even in their pureſt and beſt ſtate, are ſeldom influenced by ſingle motives, and it cannot be denied that he was ambitious. In the Italian wars, to which he was called by the biſhop of Rome, he appeared to be diſcharging the duty which he owed to the church and religion, in protecting her againſt her enemies. In the Spaniſh war, to which alſo he was invited by the princes of that country, he appeared as the protector of the oppreſſed, and as ſtrengthening the barrier of the church on that ſide againſt the infidels, ſo formidable in preceding reigns. The turbulence of the people, or of their princes, in Aquitaine, Bavaria, Saxony, and other parts of Germany, ſeems always to have been the occaſion of the wars and ſeverities with which he viſited them. Though theſe reaſons may not altogether juſtify him, they ought to have alleviated a little the acrimony with which ſome writers have treated his character.

As a man, he was humane and generous. He exerciſed mercy and compaſſion, as far as was conſiſtent with juſtice and wiſe policy. This temper indeed, being ſometimes abuſed, was the cauſe of ſubſequent ſeverities. Both his friends and enemies carried their truſt in his forbearance and forgiveneſs to an extreme, and thereby provoked his juſt reſentment. His donations were frequent, liberal, and cheerfully beſtowed; yet he has been reckoned a ſtrict economiſt. It was probably his attention to economy, among other circumſtances, which enabled him to be ſo extenſively and ſo heartily liberal. He ſeldom enriched

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riched those who served him, but he generally pleased them. His manner was so affable and obliging that it gave a double value to every thing he said or did.

He was so illiterate in the earlier part of his life, that he could not even write his own name. Princes were not allowed ordinary education, lest it should enervate them, and disqualify them for the business of war. Yet he was fond of learning and learned men. He gave the utmost encouragement to the literature of the times. He invited Alcuin, a famous teacher, from England, and by his direction instituted schools and philosophical academies. Schools, with proper masters from Italy, and other places where they could be found, were ordained to be opened in all the cathedral churches and rich abbacies; so that before his death the ecclesiastics began to understand the holy scriptures, and the monks their psalter.

According to the sense in which religion was understood in those times, he appears through the whole of his life to have been pious and devout. He was attentive to ritual worship, and to religious men; and like his predecessors, erected many sacred edifices. His moral conduct corresponded to his religious principles, and to the rude laws by which society was then regulated.*

He was buried at Aix la Chapelle. His body was embalmed, and placed in a vault on a throne of gold, having on the imperial robes, above a hair cloth vest which he was accustomed to wear. A richly ornamented sword lay by his side with a pilgrim's scrip, which he used in going to Rome. He held the gospels in his hand, written in letters of gold. His head was adorned with a chain of gold in the form of a diadem, enclosing a piece of wood of the true cross. His face was covered with a handkerchief. A golden sceptre and buckler hung before him. The sepulchre being filled with riches and perfumes, was securely shut and sealed, and over it was erected a gilded arch with the following inscription:

"Sub hoc Conditorio situm est Corpus Karoli Magni, atque orthodoxi Imperatoris, Qui Regnum Francorum nobiliter ampliavit, et per annos 47 feliciter rexit. Decessit Septuagenarius Anno ab Incarnatione Domini DCCCXIV Indictione VII. V. KAL. FEBRUARIUS."†

Character of the Female Inhabitants of Mauritius. From the Viscomte de Vaux's History of that Island.

THE women have but little colour, but they are well made, and, in general, handsome. Nature has given them a considerable portion of wit and vivacity; and if their education were not neglected, their society would be very agree-

* Eginhart, c. 19. delicately alludes to a suspicion of scandal, or disorders in his family. Speaking of his daughters, he says, "Quæ cum pulcherrimæ essent, et ab eo plurimum diligerentur, mirum dictu quod nullam earum cuiquam aut suorum, aut externorum nuptum dare voluit; sed omnes secum usque ad obitum suum in domo sua retinuit, dicens se earum contubernio carere non posse, ac propter hoc, licet alias felix, adversæ fortunæ malignitatem expertus est, quod tamen ita dissimulavit, ac si de iis nunquam alicujus probri suspicio orta, vel fama dispersa fuisset."

† Eginhart in vit Car. Magni.

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able: they are very fond mothers; and if ever they fail in fidelity to the marriage vow, it is too often owing to the indifference of their husbands, or to the Parisian manners, which have been introduced among them. Their ordinary dress is fine muslin, lined with rose-coloured taffetas.

They possess, in a great degree, the more estimable domestic qualities; they seldom or never drink any thing but water, and their cleanliness is extreme. Their children are never confined in swaddling clothes, but run about almost as soon as they are born; they are often bathed, and allowed to eat fruit at their own discretion. As they are left entirely to themselves, and are uncontrolled by the superintendance of education, they soon become strong and robust, and their temperament advances in proportion. The females are sometimes married at eleven years of age.

Interesting Anecdote of M. Greville de Forval and a Princess of Madegascar. From the same.

THE want of slaves in our colonies renders expeditions necessary in order to procure them. Vessels therefore, are equipped for the coasts of Africa and Madegascar, and a certain body of troops are sent with them, to favour or support the objects of these voyages.

Forval was ordered to command a detachmeut on a service of this nature, on the coast of Madegascar; and, being arrived on the eastern side of it, he disembarked his people, and encamped them on the small island of St. Mary, called by the natives Ibrahim, which is separated only from the principal island by a very narrow strait. Here the communications took place between the persons engaged in this expedition, and one of the petty princes of Madegascar, relative to the objects of the voyage.

Forval, however, was so entirely convinced of the good disposition of the people with whom he treated, that he yielded to the friendly solicitations of the king, to remain among them; and accordingly ordered some tents, and a small number of soldiers, to remove from the little island to the opposite coast. The king, who was called Adrian Baba, loaded him with caresses; and, having shewn him his head of cattle, demanded, in the pride of his heart, if the king of France was so great as him.

Forval, therefore, considered himself as in a perfect state of security; and having entered into his tent, in order to pass the night, he received an unexpected visit from a most beautiful woman, a native of the island, who after a short compliment of apology for her intrusion, expressed her concern that so fine a white man as himself should be massacred.

Forval, who was astonished at the visit, could not help taking notice of the danger which seemed to have produced it. The sooty lady, who appeared to interest herself so much in his welfare, was the daughter of a king, and known by the title of princess Betsy. On being questioned as to the cause of this visit, she asked him in her turn, if he would wish to sacrifice her life to save his own. "By no means," exclaimed Forval: "then," replied she, I will inform you of a plot formed against your life, if you will promise to take

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me with you, and make me your wife. I will sacrifice for you the throne of my father, which is my inheritance: I will abandon my country, my friends, my customs, and that liberty which is so dear to me. My relations, who will consider me as dishonoured, will detest me; and if you leave me to their vengeance, I shall be reduced to slavery, which, to me, would be a thousand times worse than death. Promise to grant what I have demanded; swear that your soldiers shall do no injury to my relations, and I will reveal what it is of the utmost importance for you to know." Forval immediately engaged to grant her request, if the intelligence she announced proved to be of the importance she had attached to it.

"Well then," said she, "at break of day my father will come here, under the pretext of a friendly visit; and if he breaks a stick which he will hold in his hand, that will be the signal of thy death: his guard will then enter with their hatchets, and will kill thee, and all thy people will be massacred with thee!"

Forval immediately conducted her to a place of safety. Nevertheless he was determined to wait till the morning, and ascertain the truth of her information. The princess had also added, that the signal the king would give for his attendants to retire would be to throw his hat towards them.

He accordingly ordered his soldiers to remain under arms during the night, and to keep within their tents. As for himself, he got his arms in readiness, placed a couple of pistols under the covering of his table, and dozed by the side of it, with his hand on the pistols.

At length the king arrived, and soon after, having broke his stick, the guard was advancing to the front of the tent; but the king, terrified at the pistol which Forval held to his throat, cast his hat towards his attendants, who immediately departed. The small party of soldiers which Fovral had with him were now drawn up in order of battle. All the negroes had disappeared; the king alone remained as a prisoner: nor was he enlarged, till the princess was embarked with all the equipage; and Forval felt himself happy in departing from this perfidious coast. Nor was he ungrateful: he solemnly espoused the princess Betsey, in spite of all the remonstrances of his friends, and he lives happily with her. Her colour was certainly displeasing to the white people, and her education did not qualify her to be a companion of such a man as her husband; but her figure was fine, her air noble, and all her actions partook of the dignity of one who was born to command.

She was a real Amazon, and the dress she chose was that which has since received a similar name. She never walked out but she was followed by a slave, and armed with a small fowling-piece, which she knew how to employ with great dexterity, and would defend herself with equal courage if she were attacked. She was nimble as a deer, though stately in her demeanour; but with her husband as gentle and submissive as the most affectionate of his slaves. She behaved to her inferiors with equal dignity and kindness; and she never went to the most distant part of the island, to pay visits to her family, but on foot; she nevertheless adopted the elegances of behaviour with great facility, and her

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her ſociety is very pleaſant and full of vivacity.

Some years after her marriage, the princeſs Betſey, for ſhe was ſeldom called madame de Forval, gave her huſband a new proof of her affection.

Her father at length died, the kingdom deſcended to her, and her people, who were ardently attached to the blood of their kings, anxiouſly wiſhed to ſee her on the throne of her anceſtors. As ſoon as ſhe was informed of this event, ſhe requeſted permiſſion of her huſband to viſit her country.

Though ſuch an unexpected requeſt aſtoniſhed Forval, he did not heſitate to comply with it; and as ſhe did not unfold the reaſon of ſuch a deſire on her part, he felt his pride mortified at her conduct, though he kept his chagrin to his own boſom of which it was a painful inmate.

The firſt ſentiments of Forval, reſpecting his princeſs, had been inſtigated by honour and gratitude: but her demeanour towards him, her conduct towards others, and her perſonal charms, in which her colour was forgotten, had awakened in his heart the moſt faithful and tender affection.

The queen Betſey, however, departed for her kingdom as ſoon as ſhe had received permiſſion of her own ſovereign; while Forval was totally unable to reconcile the ſtep ſhe had taken to her former ſentiments and paſt conduct. He accordingly waited with the utmoſt impatience for the return of the veſſel which had taken her away; when, to his great aſtoniſhment his faithful wife returned in it, with a hundred and fifty ſlaves which ſhe had brought him. "You had the generoſity," ſhe cried, on throwing herſelf into his arms, "to marry me, in oppoſition to the wiſhes of your friends, and the prejudices of your country, when I had nothing to offer you but my perſon, whoſe charms, whatever they might have been conſidered in my own country, were calculated rather to diſguſt, than to pleaſe you. You will therefore add another proof of your kindneſs, by aſſuring me of your pardon, for having raiſed a ſingle doubt in your mind reſpecting the affection and duty you ſo entirely deſerve from me: but it was my wiſh to avoid informing you of the project I had conceived on my father's death, till it was executed. It was not the little kingdom which that event transferred to me, nor even the largeſt empire, that would ſeparate me from you; my ſole deſign, in the ſtep I have juſt taken, was to make you an offer of a ſmall number of my ſubjects, which is the only part of my inheritance that I can beſtow. I have, at the ſame time, complied with the wiſhes of my people, in reſigning my little ſovereignty to the moſt worthy of my relations.

Such a ſcene may be more eaſily conceived than deſcribed. Thus Forval found his wife worthy of all his affection; and the preſent ſhe made him is a ſort of fortune in this country.

Sketch of the Life of Bryan Edwards, Eſq. M. P. by himſelf. From the 3d. vol. of his Hiſtory of the Weſt-Indies, publiſhed by Sir W. Young.

I was born the 21ſt of May, 1743, in the decayed town of Weſtbury, in the county of Wilts. My father inherited a ſmall paternal eſtate

eſtate in the neighbourhood, of about 100l. per annum; which proving but a ſcanty maintenance for a large family, he undertook, without any knowledge of the buſineſs, as I have been informed, to deal in corn and malt, but with very little ſucceſs. He died in 1756, leaving my excellent mother, and ſix children, in diſtreſſed circumſtances.—Luckily for my mother, ſhe had two opulent brothers in the Weſt Indies, one of them a wife and worthy man, of a liberal mind, and princely fortune. This was Zachary Bayly, of the Iſland of Jamaica, who, on the death of my father, took my mother and her family under his protection, and, as I was the eldeſt ſon, directed that I ſhould be well educated. I had been placed by my father at the ſchool of a diſſenting miniſter, in Briſtol, whoſe name was William Foot, of whom I remember enough, to believe that he was both a learned and good man, but, by a ſtrange abſurdity, he was forbidden to teach me Latin and Greek, and directed to confine my ſtudies to writing, arithmetic, and the Engliſh grammar. I ſhould therefore have had little to do, but that the ſchoolmaſter had an excellent method of making the boys write letters to him on different ſubjects, ſuch as, the beauty and dignity of truth, the obligation of a religious life, the benefits of good education, the miſchief of idleneſs, &c. &c. previouſly ſtating to them the chief arguments to be urged; and inſiſting on correctneſs in orthography and grammar. In this employment, I had ſometimes the good fortune to excel the other boys; and when this happened, my maſter never failed to praiſe me very liberally before them all; and he would frequently tranſmit my letters to my father and mother.—This excited in my mind a ſpirit of emulation, and, I believe, gave me the firſt taſte for correct and elegant compoſition. I acquired, however, all this time, but very little learning; and when my uncle (on my father's death) took me under his protection, his agent in Briſtol conſidered me as neglected by Mr. Foot, and immediately removed me to a French boarding-ſchool in the ſame city, where I ſoon obtained the French language, and, having acceſs to a circulating library, I acquired a paſſion for books, which has ſince become the ſolace of my life.

In 1759, a younger and the only brother of my great and good uncle came to England, and, ſettling in London, took me to reſide with him, in a high and elegant ſtyle of life. He was a repreſentative in parliament for Abingdon, and afterwards for his native town.—Farther I cannot ſpeak of him ſo favourably as I could wiſh, for I remember that; at the period I allude to, his conduct towards me was ſuch as not to inſpire me with much reſpect: he perceived it, and ſoon after, in the latter end of the ſame year, ſent me to Jamaica.—This proved a happy and fortunate change in my life, for I found my eldeſt uncle the reverſe, in every poſſible circumſtance, of his brother. To the moſt enlarged and enlightened mind he added the ſweeteſt temper, and the moſt generous diſpoſition. His tenderneſs towards me was exceſſive, and I regarded him with more than filial affection and veneration. Obſerving my paſſion for books, and thinking favourably of my capacity, he engaged a clergyman (my loved and ever to be lamented friend

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Isaac Teale) to reside in his family, chiefly to supply by his instructions my deficiency in the learned languages. Mr. Teale had been master of a free grammar school, and besides being a most accomplished scholar, possessed an exquisite taste for poetry, of which the reader will be convinced by referring to the Gentleman's Magizine, for August, 1771, the beautiful copy of verses, there first published, called "The Compliment of the Day," being of his composition. I dare not say, however, that I made any great progress in the languages under his tuition; I acquired "*small Latin and less Greek*;" even now, I find it difficult to read the Roman poets in their own language. The case was, that not having been grounded in the Latin grammar at an earlier period of life, I found the study of it insupportably disgusting, after I had acquired a taste for the beauties of fine writing. Poetry was our chief amusement; for my friend, as well as myself, preferred the charms of Dryden and Pope, to the dull drudgery of poring over syntax and prosody.* We preferred belles lettres.—We laughed away many a happy hour over the plays of Molière, and wrote verses on local and temporary subjects, which we sometimes published in the colonial newspapers. Yet the Latin classics were not altogether neglected; my friend delighted to point out to me the beauties of Horace, and would frequently impose on me the task of translating an ode into English verse, which, with his assistance in constructing the words, I sometimes accomplished.

Having made myself known to the public by my writings, it is probable that after I am in the grave, some collector of anecdotes, or biographical compiler, may pretend to furnish some particulars concerning my life and manners. It is not pleasant to think that misrepresentation or malice may fasten on my memory; and I have therefore made it the amusement of an idle hour, to compile a short account of myself. My personal history, however, is of little importance to the world. It will furnish no diversified scenes of fortune, nor relate many circumstances of myself, worth remembering. Yet I feel the fond ambition of an author, and am willing to hope, that those who have read my book with approbation, will be glad to know something farther concerning me;

For who, to dumb forgetfulness a prey, &c.

For the satisfaction then of such kind readers (if such there are) and the information of my posterity, I have drawn up this paper, which I desire my bookseller to prefix to the next edition of my History of the West Indies.

B. E.

* *Vide* Armstrong.

Account of Mr. Boulton's Manufactory, at Soho, near Birmingham. From Mr. Shaw's History of Staffordshire.

SOHO is the name of a hill in the county of Stafford, about two miles from Birmingham, which, a very few years ago, was a barren heath, on the bleak summit of which stood a naked hut, the habitation of a warrener.

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The transformation of this place is a recent monument of the effects of trade on population. A beautiful garden, with wood, lawn, and water, now covers one ſide of this hill; five ſpacious ſquares of building, erected on the other ſide, ſupply workſhops, or houſes, for above ſix hundred people. The extenſive pool at the approach to this building is conveyed to a large water-wheel in one of the courts, and communicates motion to a prodigious number of different tools. And the mechanic inventions for this purpoſe are ſuperior in multitude, variety, and ſimplicity, to thoſe of any manufactory (I ſuppoſe) in the known world.

Toys, and utenſils of various kinds, in gold, ſilver, ſteel, copper, tortoiſe ſhell, enamels, and many vitreous and metallic compoſitions, with gilded, plated, and inlaid works, are wrought up to the higheſt elegance of taſte, and perfection of execution, in this place.

Mr. Boulton, who has eſtabliſhed this great work, has joined taſte and philoſophy with manufacture and commerce; and, from the various branches of chemiſtry, and the numerous mechanic arts he employs, and his extenſive correſpondence to every corner of the world, is furniſhed with the higheſt entertainment as well as the moſt lucrative employment.

About the year 1745, Mr. Boulton, then of Birmingham, invented, and afterwards brought to great perfection, the inlaid ſteel buckles, buttons, watch-chains, &c. which Dr. Johnſon mentions in one of his papers in the *World*, as becoming faſhionable in this country; whilſt they were re-purchaſed from France, under the idea of their being the production of that kingdom.

In the year 1757, John Wyrley, of Hamſtead, eſq. lord of the manor of Handſworth, granted a leaſe, to Meſſrs. Edward Ruſton and Eaves, of theſe tracts of commons; viz. Handſworth-heath, Moneybank-hill, Crabtree-bank-warrens, for 99 years, with certain incloſed lands, with liberty to make ſome additions to the ſame, and to make a cut for the turning of Hockley-brook, to make a pool, with powers to build a water-mill. In conſequence of which a ſmall houſe and feeble mill were erected, for the purpoſe of rolling metal. On Lady-day, 1762, Mr. Boulton purchaſed the aforeſaid leaſe, with all the premiſes and appurtenances, to apply the ſame to ſuch branches of the manufactory eſtabliſhed at Birmingham as would tend to diminiſh expenſe and labour.

In order to proſecute his deſigns and improvements, he ſoon after enlarged and rebuilt thoſe premiſes, and then tranſplanted the whole of his manufactory from Birmingham to Soho; and though he had made very conſiderable additions to theſe buildings, he found them not ſufficient for his great deſigns: he therefore, in 1764, laid the foundation of the preſent ſuperb manufactory, which was finiſhed in the following year, at the expenſe of 9000l. From that period he began to turn his attention to the different branches of manufactory; and, in conjunction with Mr. Fothergill, then his partner, eſtabliſhed a mercantile correſpondence throughout Europe; by which means the produce of their various articles was greatly extended, and the manufacturer, by

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becoming his own merchant, eventually enjoyed a double profit. Impelled by an ardent attachment to the arts, and by the patriotic ambition of bringing his favourite Soho to the higheſt degree of perfection, the ingenious proprietor ſoon eſtabliſhed a ſeminary of artiſts for drawing and modelling; and men of genius were now ſought for and liberally patroniſed, which ſhortly led to a ſucceſsful imitation of the Or Molu. Theſe metallic ornaments, conſiſting of vaſes, tripods, candelabras, &c. by the ſuperior ſkill and taſte beſtowed upon them here, ſoon found their way, not only to the admiration of his majeſty, and to the chimney-pieces and cabinets, &c. of the nobility and curious of this kingdom; but likewiſe to France, and almoſt to every part of Europe. From this elegant branch of the buſineſs the ſuperior ſkill of Mr. Boulton led his artiſts, by a natural and eaſy tranſition, to that of the wrought ſilver; upon which he ſoon found the neceſſity of applying to parliament for, and eſtabliſhing, in 1775, an aſſay office, at Birmingham. About this time that ingenious art of copying pictures in oil colours, by a mechanical proceſs, was invented at Soho; and, under the patronage of the above proprietor, was brought to ſuch a degree of perfection as to be taken for originals by the moſt experienced connoiſſeurs. This extraordinary piece of art was principally conducted by the ingenious Mr. F. Eginton, which led him to that of painting upon glaſs, now carried on at his neighbouring manufactory.

Mr. Boulton, finding from experience that the ſtream of water, which had induced him to build a mill, and tranſplant his manufactory to Soho, was inſufficient for its purpoſes, applied horſes, in conjunction with his water-mill; but finding that both troubleſome, irregular, and expenſive, in 1767 he made a ſteam-engine, on Savery's plan, with the intention of returning and raiſing his water about 24 feet high; but, this proving unſatisfactory to him, he ſoon after formed an acquaintance with his preſent partner and friend, Mr. James Watt, of Glaſgow, who in 1765 had invented ſeveral valuable improvements upon the ſteam-engine, which in fact made it a new machine.

The application of this improved ſteam-engine at Soho to raiſe and return the water extended the powers of the water-mill; which induced Mr. Boulton to rebuild it a ſecond time upon a much larger ſcale; and ſeveral engines were afterwards erected at Soho for other purpoſes, by which the manufactory was greatly extended, the ſource of mechanical power being thus unlimited.

Amongſt the various applications of the ſteam-engine, that of coining ſeems to be of conſiderable importance, as by its powers all the operations are concentred on the ſame ſpot; ſuch as rolling the cakes of copper hot into ſheets; 2dly, fine-rolling the ſame cold in ſteel poliſhed rollers; 3dly, cutting out the blank pieces of coin, which is done with greater eaſe and rapidity by girls than could poſſibly be done by ſtrong men; 4thly, the ſteam-engine alſo performs other operations, ſuch as ſhaking the coin in bags; and 5thly, it works a number of coining machines, with greater rapidity and exactneſs, by a few boys of twelve or fourteen years of age, than could be

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be done by a great number of ſtrong men, without endangering their fingers, as the machine itſelf lays the blanks upon the die perfectly concentral with it, and when ſtruck diſplaces one piece and replaces another.

The coining-mill, which was erected in 1788, and has ſince been greatly improved, is adapted to work eight machines, and each is capable of ſtriking from ſeventy to eighty-four pieces of money per minute, the ſize of a guinea, which is equal to between 30,000 and 40,000 per hour; and at the ſame blow which ſtrikes the two faces the edge of the piece is alſo ſtruck either plain or with an inſcription upon it, and thus every piece becomes perfectly round, and of equal diameter; which is not the caſe with any other national money ever put into circulation.

Such a coining mill, erected in the national mint, would, in caſes of emergency, be able to coin all the bullion in the bank of England at a ſhort notice, without the neceſſity of putting dollars, or other foreign coin, into circulation; and by erecting double the number of preſſes, a double quantity may be coined.—

It is worthy of obſervation, that the ground of the ſilver money coined by this machine has a much finer and blacker poliſh than the money coined by the common apparatus.

In conſequence of Mr. Boulton's money being perfectly round, and of equal diameter, he propoſed the following co-incidence between money, weights, and meaſures, in the copper coin, part of which he hath lately executed for the Britiſh government; viz. a 2-penny-piece to weigh 2 oz. and 15 of them to meaſure 2 feet, when laid flat in a ſtraight line; 1 penny-piece to weigh 1 oz. and 17 of them to meaſure 2 feet; ½-penny to weigh ½ oz. and 10 of them to meaſure 1 foot; a farthing to weigh ¼ oz. and 12 to meaſure 1 foot. This plan of co-incidence was prevented from being put into execution by the ſudden advance of the price of copper.

In the year 1788, Mr. Boulton ſtruck a piece of gold, the ſize of a guinea, as a pattern (ſimilar to thoſe in copper); the letters were indented inſtead of in relief; and the head, and other devices (although in relief), were protected from wear by a broad flat border; and, from the perfect rotundity of ſhape, &c. with the aid of a ſteel gage; it may, with eaſe and certainty, by aſcertaining its ſpecific gravity, be diſtinguiſhed from any baſe metal. Previous to Mr. Boulton's engagement to ſupply government with copper pence, in order to bring his apparatus to the greateſt perfection, he exerciſed it in coining ſilver money for the Sierra Leone and African companies, and copper for the Eaſt-India company and Bermudas. Various beautiful medals of our celebrated naval and other officers, &c. have likewiſe been ſtruck here from time to time by Mr. Boulton, for the purpoſe of employing and encouraging ingenious artiſts to revive that branch of ſculpture, which had been upon the decline in this kingdom ſince the death of Simon, in the reign of Charles II.

In order to obtain the deſired degree of perfection in the manufactory of ſteam-engines, Meſſrs. Boulton and Watt found it neceſſary to erect and eſtabliſh an iron-foundery

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for that purpoſe; and they have accordingly, in partnerſhip with their ſons (to whoſe activity, genius, and judgement, it muſt be attributed, that this great work was begun and finiſhed in the courſe of three winter months), erected; at a convenient diſtance and contiguous to the ſame ſtream, at Smethwick, a great and complete manufactory and foundery, into which a branch from the Birmingham canal enters; and thereby the coals, pig-iron, bricks, ſand, &c. are brought, and their engines, or other heavy goods, are tranſported in boats to every part of the kingdom, there being a wet dock within their walls for four boats to lie.

The plan of this work being well digeſted and ſettled previous to laying the firſt ſtone, the whole is thereby rendered more complete than ſuch works as generally ariſe gradually from diſjointed ideas. And, from the great experience of the proprietors, they have applied the power of ſteam to the boring of cylenders, pumps, &c.; to drilling, to turning, to blowing their melting furnaces, and whatever tends to abridge human labour, and obtain accuracy; for, by the ſuperiority of all their tools, they are enabled to attain expedition and perfection in a higher degree than heretofore.

In a national view, Mr. Boulton's undertakings are highly valuable and important. By collecting around him artiſts of various deſcriptions, rival talents have been called forth, and by ſucceſſive competition have been multiplied to an extent highly beneficial to the public. A barren heath has been covered with plenty and population; and theſe works, which in their infancy were little known and attended to, now cover ſeveral acres, give employment to more than 600 perſons, and are ſaid to be the firſt of their kind in Europe.

Every precaution has been always taken, and in the moſt judicious manner, by the proprietors, to diminiſh the poor's levies, and keep their numerous workmen from becoming troubleſome to the pariſh, &c. One great inſtance of which, is a long-eſtabliſhed ſociety for the ſick and lame, &c. for the better management of which they are printed on a large ſheet;

"*Rules for conducting the Inſurance Society, belonging to the Soho Manufactory.*"

Theſe conſiſt of 25 articles; ſome of which are theſe:

"I. That every perſon employed in the Soho manufactory ſhall be a member of this ſociety, who can earn from 2s. 6d. per week, or upwards.

"II. Each member ſhall pay to the treaſure-box, agreeable to the following table, which is divided into eight parts; viz. the member who is ſet down at 2s. 6d. per week ſhall pay ½d per week; 5s. 1d.; and ſo on, in like proportion, to 20s. 4d.; and none to exceed that ſum.

"VI. If any member is ſick, lame, and incapable of work, he ſhall receive, after three days notice to the committee, as follows, during his illneſs, viz. if he pays in the box, for 2s. 6d. he ſhall receive 2s. per week; and for 5s. 4s.; and ſo on in like proportion;" &c.

The rules of this manufactory have certainly been productive of the moſt laudable and ſalutary effects.

And,

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And, beſides the great attention to cleanlineſs and wholeſome air, &c. this manufactory has always been diſtinguiſhed for its order and good behaviour, and particularly during the great riots at Birmingham.

No expenſe has been ſpared to render theſe works uniform and handſome in architecture, as well as neat and commodious. The ſame liberal ſpirit and taſte has the great and worthy proprietor gradually exerciſed in the adjoining gardens, groves, and pleaſure-grounds, which, at the ſame time that they form an agreeable ſeparation from his own reſidence, render Soho a much admired ſcene of picturesque beauty. Wandering through theſe ſecluded walks, or on the banks of the ſeveral fine lakes and waterfalls which adorn them, we may here enjoy the ſweets of ſolitude and retirement, as if far diſtant from the buſy hum of men.

In ſcenes like theſe the ſtudious and philoſophic mind occaſionally finds a moſt agreeable and ſalutary aſylum.

That the poet has likewiſe felt their influence appears by the following tribute to the memory of a departed friend.

At the termination of the walk beyond the cottage, in the ſecluded grove, where nothing intrudes upon the eye but the new church at Birmingham, where Dr. Small was buried, is erected a tribute to his memory, on which are the following elegant lines, by Dr. Darwin:

" M. S.
GULIELMI SMALL, M. D.
QUI OB. FEB. XXV.
M.DCC.LXXV.

" Ye gay and young, who, thoughtleſs of your doom,
Shun the diſguſtful manſions of the dead,
Where Melancholy broods o'er many a tomb,
Mould'ring beneath the yew's unwholeſome ſhade;
If chance ye enter theſe ſequeſter'd groves,
And Day's bright ſunſhine for a while forego,
Oh! leave to Folly's check the laughs and loves,
And give one hour to philoſophic woe!
Here, while no titled duſt, no fainted bone,
No lover weeping over beauty's bier,
No warrior frowning in hiſtoric ſtone,
Extorts your praiſes, or requeſts your tear;
Cold *Contemplation* leans her aching head,
On human woe her ſteady eye ſhe turns,
Waves her meek hand, and ſighs for Science dead,
For Science, Virtue, and for SMALL, ſhe mourns!"

This is one of the oldeſt groves between the houſe and manufactory. Let us now turn our attention to the more recent improvements on the oppoſite ſide; where, in the extenſive new plantations, we ſee the moſt extraordinary effects produced by irrigation, with the powerful aid of the ſteam-engine, which, when at liberty from its other labours, forces up water by pipes to the ſummit of theſe grounds; ſo that, in the dryeſt ſeaſon, when all other vegetation was periſhing for want of rain and water, theſe plantations were amply ſupplied, and now as amply reward the igenious contriver by their flouriſhing foliage. Here alſo we ſee the New Hydraulic Ram, which is a ſelf-moving water-work applicable to agricultural purpoſes, and conſtructed with great ingenuity and ſimplicity.

The houſe, which was before much too ſmall for the hoſpitable purpoſes of its generous owner, has

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been lately enlarged. At the top of the roof, which is made very neat and commodious, either for common or teleſcopic obſervations, the proſpect is extenſive and beautiful, commanding an agreeable view of the principal part of Birmingham to the ſouth, the ancient Gothic ſplendour of Aſton-Hall eaſtward; with Bar-Beacon, and all the rich ſcenery of the intermediate vallies towards the north, Sandwell-Park, and the new foundery at Smethwick, &c. to the weſt.

Character of the Iriſh. From Cooper's Letters on that Nation.

WHEN I laſt addreſſed you, I was proſecuting my journey through North Wales. I was ſtudiouſly exploring the retreats and faſtneſſes to which our gallant anceſtors retired in the laſt defence of their liberties. I felt happy in the midſt of a brave and honeſt people. They have long enjoyed the high character of combining individual integrity with public loyalty and attachment to England. There is no country where I could poſſibly have felt myſelf more at home. The Engliſhman, who travels through it, will find the ſyſtem of manners and the habits of life, which prevail there, only ſo far differing from his own, as to furniſh a pleaſing variety to inſtruct and recreate the mind. He may there travel over claſſic ground without going far abroad for it, and find ſufficient objects to enrich his imagination, improve his taſte, and meliorate his heart.

I have now arrived in Ireland. With the ſpirit of curioſity raiſed to its higheſt pitch, having climbed the ſhaggy ſteep of old Snowdon, and wound back my way through the mazes, defiles, and paſſes, which abound in the romantic country of the ancient Britons; I left the royal tower of Caernarvon, the birth-place of the unfortunate Edward; croſſed the famous ſtrait which Tacitus has immortalized; and travelled acroſs the iſland which was the laſt ſanctuary of Druidical ſuperſtition, and the boundary of Roman conqueſt. At the oppoſite extremity of Angleſea I embarked for Dublin, to which favourable winds blew me ſafely over in twelve hours.

It will be the object of this letter to deſcribe the contraſt of character which I have met with in the ſiſter kingdom. In my future letters I ſhall deſcend to other important particulars. But, in diſcharging this taſk, I muſt declare that it will neither be my inclination nor duty to apologiſe for any ſeeming prolixities. You have requeſted my obſervations on the Iriſh nation, and I ſhall give them to you in ſuch order, at ſuch length, and moreover at ſuch times, as my ſingle judgement ſhall dictate. The government, the religion, the morals, and the manners of a country, are the objects which attract a traveller's attention. In ſtudying theſe, he will always find his beſt account. But the connexion of Ireland with Great Britain may extend the inquiry to the phyſical peculiarities of the country. The climate, the ſoil, and the natural beauties, will perhaps excite your curioſity; I ſhall, therefore, diſpatch that ſubject in a very few words.

The difference of a ſingle degree of latitude cannot, of itſelf, make the

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the climate of Ireland differ much from that of England. But the bogs and moraſſes, which conſtitute the peculiar characteriſtic of the country, occaſion an extraordinary moiſture and dampneſs of the atmoſphere. Ireland may be juſtly called, in the words of Tacitus, '*terra paludibus fœda.*' I may even carry on the parallel with the deſcription which that admirable writer proceeds in giving of ancient Germany. Its lands are almoſt entirely paſturage, and of courſe afford ſuſtenance to prodigious flocks and herds. The perennial greenneſs of the country is therefore, on theſe two accounts, juſtly proverbial. But in the article of timber, there is an uncommon deficiency. I have heard it eſtimated, and I think with ſome appearance of truth, that there is as much wood in our ſingle county of Kent, as in the whole kingdom of Ireland. When I add to theſe phyſical peculiarities, that the bays and harbours of Ireland are uncommonly picturesque, as well as commodious; that the Shannon is a moſt noble river; that the lakes of Killarney are the moſt enchanting in the world; and that Dublin, in population, magnitude, and the ſplendour of its public edifices, is the ſecond city in his majeſty's dominions; you know all that is neceſſary to learn, or perhaps that is worth knowing, of the general appearance of the country.

Leaving, therefore, the detailed deſcription of theſe particulars to thoſe whoſe diſpoſitions or leiſure it may ſuit with to make them, I proceed to the more important taſk of inquiring into the character of the Iriſh people. I am ſenſible, however, that a diſcuſſion of this ſort is attended with great difficulties. I truſt you will, therefore, give me credit for entering upon it with becoming diffidence. He who flatters himſelf that the character either of an individual, or of a nation, may afford an uniformity of virtuous and honourable qualities, without the alloy of any faults or defects, will find himſelf in the reſult greatly diſappointed. To ſuch a man therefore I do not addreſs myſelf. 'The web of our life (as Shakeſpeare ſomewhere remarks) is of mingled yarn, good and ill together. Our virtues would be too proud, if they were not counterbalanced by our vices; and our vices would be intolerable, if they were not chaſtiſed by our virtues.'

The characters, then, both of individuals and of nations, are alike chequered with beauties and deformities, with virtues and with vices. If we inquire into the cauſes from which theſe peculiarities flow, we ſhall find that it neceſſarily muſt be ſo. The infirmity of human nature is a plea broad enough to palliate almoſt the greateſt defects. But philoſophers, when inquiring into the cauſes of national characters, have puſhed their reſearches ſtill farther. Though the moſt accompliſhed politicians, both of ancient and modern times, have been divided in opinion with reſpect to theſe cauſes; yet they all agree that the effects are neceſſary, invariable, and unalterable. Phyſical cauſes and moral ones have been alternately cried up. Mankind ſtood long contented with the authorities of Ariſtotle and his diſciple Monteſquieu, who laid great ſtreſs upon the former; but that opinion has been at length arraigned by the cool ſcepticiſm of Hume. That philoſopher doubts altogether of the influence of

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of phyſical cauſes.* It is far from my intention to declare myſelf the advocate of either party, or to decide dogmatically on their reſpective merits. I ſhould be happy were I able to reconcile them. It is a misfortune to mankind, when the great oracles of human wiſdom contradict each other. Perhaps, however, in this caſe, as in moſt others, truth will be found in the medium, equally apart from both the extremes; and in chooſing this courſe I am ſupported by conſiderable authorities.

The phyſical qualities of climate, air, and food, may certainly produce ſome effects on the national character; but I am inclined to conſider them as very inconſiderable. 'By working inſenſibly on the tone and habit of the body, theſe peculiarities may perhaps influence in a ſmall degree the temper and the paſſions.' But whoever conſiders that the moſt oppoſite and inconſiſtent characters are often to be found under the ſame climate, and that, on the other hand, an uniformity of diſpoſition and manners is ſometimes ſeen in the moſt oppoſite extremes of heat and cold, will I truſt, be inclined to aſcribe only a trifling effect to phyſical cauſes in producing national characters.—It is, then, to moral cauſes that we muſt principally reſort, in accounting for the manners of a nation. Theſe are enumerated by Hume to be the nature of the government; the revolutions of public affairs; the religion, the laws, the plenty or penury in which the people live; the ſituation of the country with reſpect to its neighbours; and ſuch like particulars. Theſe are the circumſtances which move the thoughts and the paſſions of men. Hence their ſentiments and their habits are formed; and from hence their actions proceed. It is, therefore, from theſe ſources that the general ſpirit of every civilized nation muſt principally take its riſe.

In order to give you a diſtinct idea of this national character in the ſiſter kingdom, it will be neceſſary to apprize you of a diſtinction of ranks unknown in England. It is not merely that ſtrong line of demarcation which in all countries divides the rich from the poor: it is ſomething more. The emigrations from Great Britain to Ireland have given riſe to two claſſes of people in it, the coloniſts with their deſcendants, and the native Iriſh, the original inhabitants of the country. To the firſt of theſe ranks is confined all the civil power of the ſtate, both ſupreme and ſubordinate; all the property in it both landed and commercial; and all the education and refinement. It is not neceſſary that I ſhould point out to you, how much the other claſs of the people muſt be ſeparated from this firſt, when deprived of all theſe advantages. But the government, the eſtabliſhed religion, and the laws, have added weight and force to this already formidable barrier. Reſerving the general diſcuſſion of theſe particulars to a future opportunity, I ſhall content myſelf with remarking, that, notwithſtanding theſe diſtinctions

* This difference in the opinion of theſe great men may be ſeen by referring to Ariſtotle's Politics, b. 4, to Monteſquieu De l'Eſprit des Loix, l. 14. who moſt ingeniouſly applies the notion of Ariſtotle, though without any mention of him: and to Hume, in his Eſſay on National Characters, who contradicts them both, without noticing the name of either.

between

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between the Iriſh people, there are certain features of national character in which they reſemble each other. I ſhall, therefore, endeavour, firſt to point out this coincidence; and then, by obſervations on each claſs ſeparately, inform you of the particulars in which they differ.

Almoſt all philoſophers have concurred in allowing to the paſſions a certain ſhare in forming the human character, though ſome of them have denied their controul over a truly virtuous man. The ſeverity of the Stoics, indeed, led them to declare, and even to define all paſſion as contrary to nature; and the ſplendid eloquence of Cicero has been exerted in giving weight to that opinion.* But the progreſs of truth has at laſt fully ſhewn that theſe ſublimated notions are inconſiſtent with the frailty of man. Ariſtotle (who oppoſed Plato in this as in all his other opinions) paved the way to a more mild and moderate ſyſtem of philoſophy. When the doctrines of the Peripatetic ſchool had been long almoſt forgotten, a philoſopher and hiſtorian was born in the bleak and frozen regions of the north, who has on this occaſion undeſervedly acquired the merit of originality in eſtabliſhing the opinions of the Stagyrite.† Whilſt the unlearned ſophiſters of the day thought Hume was attacking them, they were unconſcious that he was only wielding the weapons of Ariſtotle. By this ſyſtem, whoſe baſis is nature, and whoſe ſuperſtructure the moſt unanſwerable reaſoning, virtue is proved to be nothing more than the diſcipline of our natural feelings and affections into ſteady habits of right conduct. It does not conſiſt in the extinction of the paſſions, but in the regulation of them. Virtue is grafted on the ſtock of the natural affections: reaſon, which is the preceding deity, is exalted over the heart, to govern by its dictates 'the little ſtate of man.'

Perhaps it will be found, that all national characters differ in proportion to the degrees in which theſe two principles of reaſon and paſſion are found to preponderate. They conſtitute all the intermediate gradations between the civilized ſtate and the inhabitants of New Zealand. They form even the extremes themſelves. It is for this reaſon that the philoſophers of all ages and in all countries are the ſame characters. We may certainly form to ourſelves an idea of an angel without paſſions, but it is inconſiſtent with human nature. Merely to imagine an individual of this deſcription, whatever might be the perfection of the reaſon with which we ſuppoſe that he is endued, would be to picture to the fancy a tame, flat, inſipid, ſickly uniformity of character. On the other hand, the contraſt is equally deplorable. For if the mind is not guided and ſteered by reaſon, it muſt inevitably, like a veſſel which has loſt its rudder, be driven at random by the tides of caprice, or toſſed and ſhipwrecked by the waves of paſſion. It is therefore to the happy combination of both principles, to the juſt mixture of both ingredients, that all that is virtuous and ornamental in the human character is produced.

I think that I cannot give you a better general idea of the Iriſh character than by reſorting to this ſyſtem

* See the fourth Tuſculan Diſputation of Cicero, chap. vi. et ſeq.
† See Hume's Principles of Morals.

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of metaphyſics. It ſeems to me that the principle of paſſion bears a more than equal ſway over that of reaſon, with this people. They are indued with warm hearts, ſtrong feelings, and that peculiar force of natural ſentiment which I conſider as capable of being exalted, by the wiſdom of legiſlation, into a moſt amiable national character. But that which ought only to enliven and impaſſion the underſtanding, is left to vegetate unpruned in all the wanton exuberance of nature. It is not ſufficiently under the controul and diſcipline of reaſon and moral habit. The conſequence is, that it leads to many faults, at the ſame time that it conſtitutes many virtues in their characters. I ſhall point out to you how this haughty principle diſplays itſelf in the Iriſh nation.

1. This is firſt in a great national pride and a high conceit of the political rank of their country in the liſt of nations, and of each individual of it as an important member of ſociety. It cannot be diſſembled that they are a vain-glorious and a boaſting nation. The popular vanity of the whole can only be equalled by the family pride of each individual. They are equally ridiculous in their genealogical calculations, and their hyperbolical encomiums on their country. Their hiſtorians have traced up the pedigree of their country to a period much earlier than the chronological records of civilized ſociety extend. They will allow, that the '*vixere fortes ante Agamemnona*' of Horace, is at leaſt true, if applied to Ireland. They inform you, that it was flouriſhing in learning and civilization, whilſt all other nations were obſcured in ignorance and barbariſm. Europe and America are contented to acknowledge their gratitude to Phœnicia, for beſtowing on them the benefits of letters and religion. But the generality of the Iriſh hiſtorians forming a ſolitary exception to this general acquieſcence of modern nations, have inverted the ordinary progreſs of civilization, by aſſerting that their country was in the enjoyment of it prior to the Aſſyrian or oldeſt of the four monarchies of the ancient world.* They aſſert that Egypt and Phœnicia received the arts and ſciences from the great anceſtor of the Iriſh nation. This people, ſo poliſhed in the re-

* This is calculating according to ſir Iſaac Newton's chronology. Sir William Jones has, however, demonſtrated, that a powerful monarchy was eſtabliſhed in Iran or Perſia in its largeſt ſenſe, long before the Aſſyrian or Piſhdadi government; that it was in truth a Hindu monarchy, though he ſays that if any chooſe to call it Cuſian, Caſdean, or Scythian, he will not enter into a debate on mere names; that it ſubſiſted many centuries, and that its hiſtory has been engraſted on that of the Hindus, who founded the monarchies of Ayodhya and Indraprestha; that the language of the firſt Perſian empire was the mother of Sanſcrit, and conſequently of the Zend and Perſi, as well as of Greek, Latin, and Gothic. (See his ſixth diſcourſe to the Aſiatic ſociety.)—Words would be wanting to expreſs the eſteem and veneration which I feel for this Columbus in literature. As a linguiſt he can only be compared to the celebrated Giovanni Pico, a nobleman of Mirandula, in the age of Lorenzo de Medici. But as a chronologiſt, an antiquary, an aſtronomer, a theoriſt in muſic, an elegant poet, ſuperadded to his acquirements as a lawyer, he has no parallel. This finiſhed model of intellectual and moral excellence is now no more:

Dear ſon of memory, great heir of fame,
What need'ſt thou ſuch weak witneſs of thy name?

moſt

moſt periods of antiquity, may therefore conſiſtently lay claim to the honour of being the fathers of letters.* The beauty and fertility of their country are equally the objects of their commendation. They will tell you that whatever is celebrated for beauty in hiſtory or fable, is but a faint picture of what is to be ſeen in Ireland. I have found amongſt them more Rudbecks than the univerſity of Upſal ever produced.† As that celebrated profeſſor aſſured the Swedes, in his work called the Manheim or Atlantica, that the 'Atlantis of Plato, the country of the Hyperboreans, the gardens of the Heſperides, the Fortunate Iſlands, and even the Elyſian Fields, were all but imperfect tranſcripts of the delightful region of Sweden;' ſo are the Iriſh equally laviſh in their encomiums on Ireland. It was but the other day that I accidentally fell into company with a profeſſor of their univerſity of Dublin, and the converſation turning on the reſpective merits of Great Britain and Ireland in the above-mentioned particulars, I found it impoſſible to convince him that London was a finer city than Dublin, or that England in fertility and cultivation could at all be compared with Ireland. I left him to the peaceable enjoyment of his own opinion.

Something has alſo been hinted of the pride of pedigree diſplayed here by individuals. The Iriſhman in this reſpect far exceeds all other nations. 'He can point out the individual ſon of Japhet from whoſe loins he is lineally deſcended.' I remember to have ſomewhere read, that in the reign of Edward the ſecond, an Ulſter prince made a public boaſt of having ſucceeded to near two hundred kings of Ireland, his lineal anceſtors, down to the year 1170. Would you imagine that the genealogical tree of the meaneſt individual has an almoſt equally deep root? The fact is undoubtedly ſo. With this ſpirit, and with a ſimilar boaſt of anceſtry, a kitchen-wench, in the ſervice of the celebrated biſhop of Cloyne, refuſed to carry out cinders, becauſe ſhe was deſcended from an old Iriſh ſtock.‡ I might weary you with details of this ſort, but I content myſelf with aſſuring you, that there is no nation, whoſe legendary tales about their country and kindred, are ſo extravagant and ridiculous as thoſe of the Iriſh. The Engliſh have been laughed at by foreigners for their predilection in favour of their own country. But an Engliſhman's vanity proceeds from a conviction of the acknowledged ſuperiority in the conſtitution, the laws, the commerce, and the enjoyment of the comforts of life, which his country enjoys over all the world. The utmoſt paroxyſms of his pride on theſe accounts, are ſobriety and moderation themſelves, when compared with thoſe of the Iriſhman. I do not, however, mention this leading feature in the character of the Iriſh nation, as an unpardonable folly. On the contrary, I acknowledge it to be, in the abſtract, and without reference to its conſequences on in-

* See O'Halloran's Hiſtory, and Iernè defended by the ſame author. 4to. 1774.

† Some account of Rudbeck may be found in Gibbon's Hiſtory, chap. ix.

‡ See Biſhop Berkeley's work, entitled 'A Word to the Wiſe; or Letter to the Roman Catholic Clergy of Ireland.'

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duſtry, a harmleſs and innocent prejudice. I am not ignorant that, generally ſpeaking, there is an 'habitual native dignity' inſpired by the idea of a liberal deſcent, which is admirably calculated for the prevention of crime, and the preſervation of a rational and manly virtue. Not but that an enlightened education, and an acquaintance with the laws of humanity, will give a ſuperior elevation to the ſoul, to all the prerogatives of nobility, and all the pride, and pomp, and boaſt, of heraldry. It would even be better to infuſe into the minds of a nation the ſpirit of life and energy, than the pride of anceſtry, however refined and ſubtilized. All I contend for is, that the vanity of a noble deſcent may co-operate with the greateſt talents and learning, and where they are wanting will often ſupply the place of them.

2. But I turn with pleaſure from the laughable exceſſes to which this trait of Iriſh character leads, to one that I could expatiate upon with pleaſure as a ſcholar, and with gratitude as an Engliſh ſubject. I mean that heroic courage, that moſt ſplendid of all qualities, which has long adorned the people of this country. Not that I imagine it proceeds either from any principle of ſelf-preſervation, or ſenſe of duty, which they have; but from that pride, that love of diſtinction, and that warmth of temper which ſo much diſtinguiſhes them. All the world muſt agree, that the Iriſh are a brave and warlike people. They may be ſlaughtered or diſperſed in the field of battle, but their ſpirit can never be tamed. Their minds are capable of being wound up to the higheſt pitch of fortitude; and their bodies are hardy, robuſt, and equal to the greateſt fatigue. Their courage, indeed, is certainly not that juſt medium between raſhneſs and puſillanimity, which a philoſopher would admire. It is too much influenced by paſſion, and too little by the cool dictates of reaſon and reflection. For true fortitude can alone be ſeen in exploits which are not only warranted by juſtice, but alſo guided by the dictates of wiſdom. But this is not the character of Iriſh courage: it is more of 'towering frenzy and diſtraction.' The conſequence is, that it has chiefly been found ſerviceable when made ſubordinate to order and ſtrict diſcipline. It is of itſelf generally unfit to reſolve before it executes. For this reaſon, the Iriſh have always diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the ſubordinate ſtations in our fleets and armies, but ſeldom when poſſeſſed of ſupreme power. They have always ſucceeded to admiration where mere boldneſs has been looked for. They are gifted with that enterpriſing character which diſregards all obſtacles, or only conſiders them as ſo many incentives to exertion.

A characteriſtic naturally connected with this philoſophical defect (for it is no more) in the bravery of the Iriſh, is, that they are haſty and impetuous, raſh and choleric, and ſubject to the moſt violent attacks of anger and paſſion. This irafcible temper has created in the Engliſh a habit of cautiouſly avoiding too great a degree of intimacy with them. When heated with wine, of which they are immoderately fond, there is no deſcription of people more quarrelſome or dangerous. Drinking, inſtead of promoting harmony, and conviviality, too frequently leads them into broils and encounters. Even the merry-making of

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of the peasant generally ends in bloodshed. But this is, in some degree, to be attributed to that generous warmth and openness of temper, to that boldness, both in speech and action, which, when heightened by the juice of the grape, pours out the sentiments of the heart in the most unguarded manner. There is an observation of my favourite author, lord chancellor Bacon, which irresistibly forces itself on my mind whilst I am on this subject: 'Wine (says he) is of a common nature with all the passions, and will be found to kindle and excite each of them in an equal degree.' When, therefore, the natural disposition of the Irishman receives this artificial irritation, the result must necessarily be such as I have described it.

3. The same disposition which displays itself in the manner I have above related, shews itself also among the Irish in another amiable point of view. This is in a spirit of liberality and generosity, which I have seldom seen equalled. The hospitality and munificence which they display towards strangers, is, I think, if not unequalled, at least not exceeded, in any European country. That reserve towards strangers, which alike characterises the Englishman and his mastiff, is unknown in Ireland. An accidental rencontre on the public road, often leads to the utmost hospitality: I have myself more than once experienced the benefit of this quality, under circumstances of that nature. The liberality displayed towards their guests at their tables is indeed so extreme as to be frequently prejudicial to their fortunes. But it is obvious that there is a degree of ostentatious vanity, which has some share in leading them into these excesses: and their quickness in forming friendships is attended with that general consequence which accompanies this disposition, a proportionate shortness in the duration of their attachments.

4. But there is a trait in their dispositions and manners somewhat connected with this hospitality, and which often serves as a foil to it. This is an excessive love of gaming, no where indulged to greater lengths than in Ireland. This spirit for play is not confined to the higher classes of individuals as in England, but extends to the poorest and meanest of the people. The effect which it produces on their conduct, conversation, and behaviour in social life, has been to me a matter of inconceivable amazement. I happened to be in Dublin when the state lottery was drawing, and if it had been necessary to convince me how pernicious an expedient this is for raising money for the use of the government, I should have there met with it. The crowds which are drawn in this vortex are inconceivable; old and young, rich and poor, gentleman and beggar, are alike avowed candidates for the favours of the blind goddess. In England, the laws guard against many of the evils which this invention has been found to produce: the refinement of manners is still an additional guard against them. But in Ireland these laws do not exist; and manners form no barrier to supply the want of them. I have heard gentlemen in the most fashionable circles of polite company, openly exult at their gains, even by the insurance of lottery tickets. Indeed, speculations of that nature cannot any where else be carried on to such an extent. Perhaps too, I may add to this, that,

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the profeſſion of a gameſter is more confined to the natives of Ireland, than of any other portion of his majeſty's dominions.

But the effects of this gaming expedient for raiſing money, are ſtill more conſpicuous amongſt the lower claſſes of the people. The public ſtreets of Dublin are filled with lottery offices, beyond the conception even of a Londoner. Theſe ſhops are adorned with every thing which can catch the eye, and delude the mind of the unwary. They are filled with crowds of the moſt miſerable ragged objects (of which Dublin, perhaps, contains more than any other city in Europe), ſtaking their daily bread on the chance of gain. I have often obſerved in London the multitudes of poor people, who are plundered by the keepers of lottery-offices. I have often heard of the families of induſtrious mechanics and manufactures driven by their frauds into the ſtreets to beg their bread. I have even known old ſervants plundered of the 'thrifty hire ſaved in a life of ſervice.' But yet theſe are all trifles when compared with the extent to which the evil of lottery-offices is carried on in Ireland. They are there an inſult to the eye of public decency. The immenſe fortunes, alſo, which I underſtand are often ſuddenly amaſſed by the keepers of theſe gaming-houſes, are incredible. To my mind, this open pillage of the public is an outrage committed on every principle of morality, of moderation, and of the ſpirit and object of laws.

When I add to theſe general characteriſtics of the nation their exceſſive credulity, which has always been impoſed on by thoſe who have been baſe enough to take advantage of it, and which has ſo often made them the dupes of political innovators and artful demagogues, I conſider that I have nearly ſummed up every thing which I had to ſay on this part of my ſubject.

Anecdotes of the Emperor Paul of Ruſſia. From The Secret Memoirs that Court, lately publiſhed.

THE guards, that dangerous body who had overturned the throne of the father, and who had long conſidered the acceſſion of the ſon as the term of its military exiſtence, was, from the very firſt day, by a bold and vigorous ſtep, rendered incapable of injuring him, and treated without the leaſt management. Paul incorporated in the different regiments of guards his battalions that arrived from Gatſhina,* the officers of which he diſtributed among the various companies, promoting them at the ſame time two or three ſteps; ſo that ſimple lieutenants or captains in the army found themſelves at once captains in the guards, a place of importance, and hitherto much honoured, and which gives the rank of colonel or even of brigadier. Some of theſe

* Paul waited for theſe battalions with evident impatience and anxiety. They marched all night, and arrived in the morning. Ratikof, a ſubaltern, who had no other merit than the good fortune of announcing to him their wiſhed-for arrival, was inſtantly created a knight of St. Anne, and made aide-de-camp to the grand-duke. It was not till Paul ſaw himſelf ſurrounded with his little army, that he began to act as he had done at Gatſhina.

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ancient captains, and they the firſt families in the empire, found themſelves under the command of officers of no birth, who but a few years before had left their companies as ſerjeants or corporals, to enter into the battalions of the grand-duke. This bold and haſty change, which at any other time would have been fatal to its author, had no other effect than that of inducing a few hundreds of officers, ſubalterns, and others, to retire. Moſt of theſe were ſuch as had ſufficient to live upon beſide their commiſſions, or could neither digeſt the putting others over their heads, nor ſupport the haraſſing diſcipline which the intruders were about to eſtabliſh.* Many of theſe young officers, however, felt no other affront than that of being obliged to quit their brilliant uniforms, and to alter their dreſs according to the groteſque and fantaſtical clothing of thoſe battalions which had ſo long excited their ridicule.

Paul, alarmed and enraged at this general deſertion, went to the barracks, flattered the ſoldiers, appeaſed the officers, and endeavoured to retain them, by excluding from all employ, civil and military, thoſe who ſhould retire in future, and who beſides were no longer to wear their uniform. He afterwards iſſued the ridiculous and cruel order, that every officer or ſubaltern who had reſigned, or ſhould give in his reſignation, ſhould quit the capital within four-and-twenty hours, and return to his own home. It never entered the head of Paul, or of him who drew up the ukaſe, that it contained an abſurdity; as ſeveral of the officers were natives of Peterſburg, and had families reſiding in that city. Accordingly ſome of them retired to their homes without quitting the capital, not obeying the

* Of theſe obtruded officers, no one made his fortune ſo rapidly as Araktſcheief. Seven years before, the grand-duke, willing to have a company of artillery at Pavlofsky, aſked general Meliſſino for an officer capable of forming one. Araktſcheief, who had been brought up in a corps of cadets, and who had gotten himſelf noticed by the progreſs he made, and particularly for the ardour and paſſionate zeal he diſplayed for the minutiæ of diſcipline, was given him. In ſpite of his indefatigable attentions, ſeverity, and exactitude, in the ſervice, it was ſome time before he could eſtabliſh himſelf thoroughly in the good opinion of Paul. Several pretty fire-works, which he compoſed, with the aſſiſtance of his old maſter, for the entertainments at Pavlofsky, but, above all, the rage for exerciſing with which he burned, and which induced him to haraſs the ſoldiers day and night, at length gained him the favour of the grand duke. At his acceſſion to the throne, Arakt cheief was created a major in the guards, with the rank of general, and appointed military governor of Peterſburg. He received the order of St. Anne, with ſome thouſands of peaſants, and became the emperors right hand. Araktſcheief, with whom major M. has ſerved in the corp of cadets, where he was ſerjeant, was truly commendable for the talents, acquirements, and zeal which he diſplayed at that time: but he is diſguſting by his brutality, which he exerciſed even towards the cadets. Never was Pindaric poet more tormented by his muſe, than this man is poſſeſſed by his military demon. His fury and his cane have already coſt more than one unfortunate ſoldier his life, even under the eye of Paul. This wretch has revived a barbarity, which had long been a ſtranger to the Ruſſian ſervice: he abuſes and ſtrikes the very officers when exerciſing. However, while in favour, that he might have the appearance of being grateful, he recommended major Meliſſino, his former maſter, with whom he was at variance. He was lately diſgraced, but ſince recalled, and barracked. It was he who reviewed the troops ſent into Germany.

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first part of the order, lest they should be found guilty of disobedience to the second. Arkarof, who was to see it put in force, having informed the emperor of this contradiction, he directed that the injunction to quit Petersburg should alone be obeyed. A number of young men were consequently taken out of their houses as criminals, conveyed out of the city, with orders not to re-enter it, and left on the road without shelter, and without pelisses, in a very intense frost. They who belonged to remote provinces, for the most part wanting money to carry them thither, wandered about the neighbourhood of Petersburg, where several perished of cold and want.

These measures were extended to all the officers of the army; and those on the staff as generals were equally obliged to join their regiments, or resign, because their staffs were abolished. And it was by this impolitic step that he pretended to commence a reform, and gain the goodwill of the army. But what soon shewed that Paul, on becoming emperor by no means renounced the military frivolities which had entirely occupied him while grand-duke, was his devoting all his attention, from the morning of his ascending to the throne, to the trifling changes he was about to introduce into the dress and exercise of the soldiers. For a moment the palace had the appearance of a place taken by assault by foreign troops; those who began to mount guard there differing so much in dress and style from those who had been seen there the day before. He went down into the court, where he was manœuvring his soldiers three or four hours, to teach them to mount guard after his fashion, and establish his *wachiparade* (guard-parade), which became the most important institution and the central point of his administration. Every day since he has dedicated the same time to it, however cold the weather. Here, in a plain deep green uniform, great boots, and a large hat, he spends his mornings in exercising his guards:* here he gives his orders, receives reports, publishes his favours, rewards, and punishments; and here every officer must be presented to him. Surrounded by his sons and aides-de-camp, stamping his heels on the pavement to keep himself warm, his bald head bare, his snub nose cocked up to the wind, one hand behind his back, and with the other raising and falling his cane in due time, and crying, *raz, dva; raz, dva;* one, two; one, two; he prides himself in braving a cold of fifteen or twenty degrees of Reaumer without furs. Presently, none of the officers dared any longer to appear in pelisses; and the old generals, tormented with coughs, gout, and rheumatism, were obliged to form a circle round Paul, dressed like himself. †

The

* See the print of him, which, though intended perhaps as a caricature, is nevertheless a striking likeness, published in St. James's Street, having under it, "Our magnanimous ally. — Painted at Petersburg."

† A Hogarth, who should see the emperor and his younger son busy about a poor recruit, turning him to the right and to the left, marching him forward and backward, raising up his chin, tightening his belt, and placing his head properly, with every now and then a blow, would have a fine subject for a caricature. An emigrant named Lami conceived

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The firſt impreſſions of fear and joy being deadened in the heart of Paul, puniſhments and diſgraces ſucceeded with the ſame rapidity and profuſion with which he had laviſhed his favours. Several perſons experienced the two extremes within the ſpace of a few days. It is true, that moſt of theſe puniſhments at firſt appeared to be juſt: then, however, it muſt be allowed, that Paul could ſcarcely ſtrike any where but on the guilty, ſo corrupt were all who beſet the throne.

Notwithſtanding the aſſurances he had juſt given to Zubof, one of the firſt orders that followed was, to ſeal up his chancery and that of Markof, and to expel their officers and ſecretaries from the court with diſgrace.

One Terſky, maſter of requeſts, and reporter to the ſenate, who publicly ſold juſtice to the higheſt bidder, and, with a ſhocking effrontery, was at firſt gratified with an order of knighthood, and obtained ſome lands, which he ſaid the late empreſs had promiſed him a few days before her deceaſe, was next morning diſmiſſed from his offices. This reſpect of Paul to the pretended will of his mother, and his care farther to enrich a raſcal before he diſcarded him, excited a ſtupid admiration. Surely he ought rather to have brought to trial this deſpoiler of the widow and orphan, and made him an example of public juſtice!

Samoilof, the procureur-general, whom likewiſe he had honourably confirmed in his office, with a preſent of four thouſand peaſants, amounting in value to more than twenty thouſand rubles (2000*l.*) a year, was diſplaced a few days after, put under arreſt, and his ſecretary was ſent to the fortreſs. In ſhort, all was reformed in this manner, except Beſborodko, Nicholas Soltikof, and Arkarof.

This uncertain and fluctuating conduct, which characteriſed the firſt ſteps of Paul, clearly proves that his favours were the effects of policy; and the diſgraces that followed them were to be aſcribed to paſſion rather than to juſtice. But what confounded all who had admired him, was to ſee him, at the very moment when he was entering ſuch an intricate labyrinth of buſineſs and abuſes, and the importance whereof to the ſtate would have found him work enough at leaſt for ſome days, was, I ſay, to ſee him applying the very morning of his acceſſion with the ſame eagerneſs to the moſt trifling details of the military ſervice. The ſhape of a hat, the colour of a feather, the altitude of a grenadier's cap, boots, ſpatterdaſhes, cockades, queues, and ſword-belts, became the affairs of ſtate that abſorbed his aſtoniſhing activity. He was ſurrounded by patterns of accoutrements and uniforms of all kinds. If Louis XIV. was of all the princes of Europe the moſt expert at making a lock, verily Paul I. is the beſt hand at ſcouring a button, and employs himſelf at it with the ſame aſſiduity as formerly Potemkin did in bruſhing up his diamonds. The greateſt proof of zeal and merit any one could give him during the firſt days of his reign, was to appear

conceived the humorous idea of dedicating to Paul a bad tranſlation he made of the explanation of Hogarth's prints. I know not whether he did it out of ſimplicity, or as a ſtroke of ſatire; but the name of Paul is very happily placed at the head of that work, which wanted only the ridicule of ſuch a dedication to make it complete. Paul, however, ſuſpected no joke in it, for he ſent abbé Lami a preſent of a ſnuff-box.

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before him in the uniform he had last introduced. An officer, who could give his tailor a hundred rubles to have a dress of the new fashion made in a few hours, and appear in it the next morning at the *wacht-parade*, was almost certain of obtaining some post, or at least a cross. Several had no other merit, and employed no other means to gain the good graces of their new emperor.*

Another fancy, which caused no little surprise, was the imperial prohibition of wearing round hats, or rather the sudden order of taking them away, or tearing them to pieces on the heads of those who appeared in them; which occasioned some scandalous scenes in the streets, and particularly near the palace. The kozaks and soldiers of the police ran up to the passengers and snatched off their hats, beating those who, not knowing the reason, attempted to defend themselves. An English merchant, going through the street in a sledge, was thus stopped, and his hat snatched off. Supposing it a robbery, he leaped out of his sledge, knocked down the soldier, and called the guard. Instead of the guard, arrived an officer, who overpowered and bound him; but as they were carrying him before the police he was fortunate enough to meet the coach of the English minister, who was going to court, and claimed his protection.† Sir Charles Whitworth made his complaint to the emperor; who, conjecturing that a round hat might be the national dress of the English, as it is of the Swedes, ‡ said, that his order had been misconceived, and he would explain himself more fully to Arkarof. The next day it was published in the streets and houses, that strangers, who were not in the emperor's service, or naturalized, were not comprised in the prohibition. Round hats were now no longer pulled off; but they who were met with this unlucky head-dress were conducted to the police to ascertain their country. If they were found to be Russians, they were sent to be soldiers; and woe to a Frenchman who had been met in this dress, as he would have been condemned as a jacobin.§ It was reported to Paul, that the chargé d'affaires of the king of Sardinia, in raillery at this singular proscription of round hats, had said, that such trifles had often been

* General Meyendorf being mentioned to him as a good officer of horse, he dispatched a courier to him; and Meyendorf, in his eagerness to obey the command, presented himself at the parade in his ancient uniform. Paul, enraged, uttered some severe reproaches to those who had recommended such a man, called him one of *Potemkin's soldiers*, and banished him to his estate.

† Another Englishman was met by an officer of the police, who took from him his round hat. The Englishman, folding his arms, and surveying him from head to foot, said with a look of compassion, "My friend! how I pity thee for being a Russian!"

‡ It is likewise the national hat of the Russians, a little difference in the crown excepted, which it was well to be apprised of, as it prevented the wearer from insult. The hatters shops being soon emptied of cocked hats, they who had neither time nor means to procure one, cocked up their little round hats with pins, that they might walk the streets with safety.

§ Perhaps the reader may suppose that these round hats were considered as some party sign. By no means: it was a singular aversion which Paul had for them; and he had declared war against them at Pavlofsky four years before.

on

on the point of occaſioning ſeditions in Italy; the chargé d'affaires received orders, through Arkaref, to quit the city in twenty-four hours. Thanks to the diſtance and ſituation of the king of Sardinia, he could not demand an explanation of ſuch an inſult, otherwiſe round hats might have become the motive of a war between two monarchs: the rights of the throne and the altar, the dignity of the crown and the happineſs of the people, would doubtleſs have figured in the ſeveral manifeſtoes.*

A regulation altogether as incomprehenſible was the ſudden prohibition of putting to and harneſſing the horſes after the Ruſſian mode. A fortnight was allowed for procuring harneſs in the German faſhion; after the expiration of which, the police was enjoined to cut the traces of every carriage to which the horſes were harneſſed in the ancient manner. Almoſt as ſoon as it was made public, ſeveral perſons dared not venture abroad, ſtill leſs appear in their carriages near the palace, for fear of being inſulted. The ſaddlers, availing themſelves of the occaſion, aſked as far as three hundred rubles (30l.) for a plain harneſs for a pair of horſes. To dreſs the *iſvoſchtſchiki*, or Ruſſian coachmen, in the German faſhion, was attended with another inconvenience. The generality of them would neither part with their long beards, their *kaftans*, nor their round hats; ſtill leſs would they tie a falſe tail to their ſhort hair, which produced the moſt ridiculous ſcenes and figures in the world. At length the emperor had the mortification to be obliged to change his rigorous order into a ſimple invitation to his ſubjects gradually to adopt the German faſhion of dreſs, if they wiſhed to merit his favour.

Another reform with reſpect to carriages: the great number of ſplendid equipages that ſwarmed in the ſtreets of Peterſburg, diſappeared in an inſtant. The officers, even the generals, came to the parade on foot, or in little ſledges, which alſo was not without its dangers.†

It was anciently a point of etiquette for every perſon who met a Ruſſian autocrate, his wife, or ſon, to ſtop his horſe or coach, alight, and proſtrate himſelf in the ſnow, or in the mud.‡ This barbarous homage, difficult to be paid in a large city, where carriages paſs in great numbers, and always on the gallop, had been completely aboliſhed under the poliſhed reign of Catharine. One of the firſt cares of Paul was to re-eſtabliſh it in all its rigour. A

* It was fortunate that it did not happen to the Swediſh or Pruſſian ambaſſador. The latter, however, fell into diſgrace with Paul for a motive equally noble. He gives out that the hat, the tail, the bag, the ſpatterdaſhes, and the ſword behind the back, are in the Pruſſian mode. M. Van Tauenziehn appeared to proteſt againſt the fidelity of the tranſlation, by coming to court in a more modern and more elegant uniform. This was the crime for which Paul demanded his recal.

† An officer, walking the ſtreets in a large peliſſe, had given his ſervant his ſword, which incommoded him, intending to put it on again, and to take off his peliſſe, when he got near the palace. Unfortunately, before this took place, the emperor met him, and in conſequence he was reduced to the ranks, and his ſervant made an officer in his place.

‡ Peter I. ordered thoſe who proſtrated themſelves before him in this manner to be caned, and even caned them himſelf.

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general officer, whose coachman passed on without observing the emperor riding by on horseback, was stopped, and immediately put under arrest.* The same disagreeable circumstance occurred to several others; so that nothing was so much dreaded, either on foot or in a carriage, as to meet Paul. What befel a lady of the name of Likarof, however, deserves to be recorded, for the sake of inspiring that horror which is due to tyrants.

This lady being in the country, at a small distance from Petersburg, with her husband brigadier Likarof, he happened to be taken ill; and, from the tenderness of her affection, not caring to trust to others, she set out herself to fetch a physician and the necessary assistance from town. Her country servants, not knowing the emperor, and still less his new regulations, and she, absorbed in the apprehensions of her husband's danger, ordered them to drive to the physician's house as fast as possible. Unfortunately her carriage passed, without stopping, at some distance from Paul, who was taking the air on horseback. Enraged at this, he immediately dispatched an aide-de-camp to stop the coach, commanded the four servants to be sent off as soldiers, and the lady to be conveyed, for her impertinence, to the prison of the police. These orders were executed on the spot, and the unfortunate lady of the brigadier was kept in confinement four days. This shocking treatment, with the condition in which she had left her husband, wrought so forcibly on her feelings as to throw her into a violent fever, which brought on a delirium. She was at length removed to an inn, that some care might be taken of her; but her reason she never recovered. Her husband, deprived of his wife and servants, and left without assistance, died in a state of the deepest affliction, without ever seeing her more.

The etiquette established within the palace became equally strict, and equally dreaded. Woe to him, who, when permitted to kiss the rough hand of Paul, failed to make the floor resound by striking it with his knee as loud as a soldier with the butt-end of his firelock. It was requisite too, that the smack of the lips on his hand should be heard, to certify the reality of the kiss, as well as of the genuflexion. Prince George Gallitzin, the chamberlain, was put under arrest on the spot by his Muscovite majesty himself, for having made the bow and kissed the hand too negligently.†

* When his sword was returned him, he refused to take it, saying, that it was a gold-hilted sword received from the empress, with the privilege of it's never being taken from him. Paul sent for him, returned the sword to him himself, and said, that he had resolved to make an example, and had no particular ill-will towards him: at the same time he ordered him to repair immediately to the army.

† Paul, when grand duke, had a great predilection for etiquette. Being once at Montbelliard, he suddenly took by the arm a young officer of his suite, who was playing at cards, and turning him out of the room, said to those who were playing with the officer, "Gentlemen, that young coxcomb is not of a proper rank to make one of your party." At the court balls, the dancers were obliged to twist themselves every possible way, that they might not turn their backs upon him when dancing, wherever he might happen to be. Paul will allow none to turn their backs but his enemies. Whether they will avail themselves of the permission, if he should give them an opportunity, I will not pretend to say.

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Another of Paul's first regulations, was a strict injunction to all tradesmen to efface from the front of their shops the French word *magazin*, and substitute the Russian word *lavka* (shop); assigning, as a reason, that the emperor alone could have magazines of wood, flour, corn, &c. while a tradesman ought not to be above his condition but to stick to his shop.

To report all the ordinances of similar weight and importance that succeeded each other in the course of one week, would be descending into particulars too tedious.* What can be said, what can be hoped, of a man, who, succeeding Catharine, could consider the regulating such things as his most urgent business? Frequently these new and important regulations contradicted or frustrated one another, and what was ordained one day was often obliged to be modified or annulled the next. In a word, we may say that Paul, when he wrapped himself in the imperial mantle, let the grand-duke peep out; that he thought to govern a vast empire as he had governed his Pavlofsky; his capital, like his house; and thirty millions of men of all ranks and all nations, like a score of lackeys.

Of all the unforeseen changes which he introduced without any preparation, those which he made in the army were the most extensive, and the most impolitic. Unquestionably there was room for great reforms and great amendments in the military department. To improve the condition of the brave Russian soldier; to settle that of the officer, which was still more wretched; gradually to diminish the number of supernumeraries; to restore order and discipline, which the reign of so many women and so many favourites had destroyed: opened a fine field to the military genius of Paul. All he was capable of doing was to multiply irregular promotions, increase a staff already too numerous, and alter uniforms, ranks, terms, and titles. The Russian army offered a pattern to be followed, in the beauty, simplicity, and convenience of its dress, equally adapted to the climate, and to the genius of the country.† A large *charvari*, or pair of pantaloons of red cloth, the ends of which terminated in boots of pliable leather, and which was fastened by a girdle over a red and green jacket; a little helmet well adapted to a soldier, with the hair cut short in the neck, but long enough to cover the ears, and easily kept in order; constituted the whole of the military uniform. The soldier was dressed in the twinkling of an eye, for he had but two garments; and their size was such, as allowed him to defend

* He has since issued different ukases, prohibiting the wearing of frock coats, waistcoats without sleeves, and pantaloons. He has forbidden the academy to use the word revolution when speaking of the course of the stars; and has enjoined the players to employ the word permission instead of liberty, which they had been accustomed to put in their bills. He has forbidden the manufacturers to fabricate any tricoloured ribands or stuffs whatever.

† Accordingly the soldier imagined himself much superior to his neighbours, and not without reason. Paul deprived him of this national pride, by compelling him servilely to imitate the Germans of the last century, whom the Russians imagined they had far outstripped. Paul has acted like a pedant, who should turn a scholar back to his *a*, *b*, *c*, for having presumed to learn to read too rapidly.

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himself from the cold by additions underneath, without infringing upon the uniformity of his external appearance. This neat and warlike equipment is now changed for the antiquated dress of Germany, which the Russian soldier abominates; his flaxen locks, which he loved to wash every morning, he must now bedaub with grease and flour; and must spend an hour in buttoning his black spatterdashes, which he curses for pinching his legs. He complains so bitterly, that probably the false tail which he is forced to suspend from his poll, will occasion as many desertions as the catogans of St Germain.* That old original, marshal Suvarof, when he received orders to establish these novelties, with little sticks for measures and models of the soldiers tails and side-curls, said, "Hair-powder is not gunpowder; curls are not cannons; and tails are not bayonets." This sarcasm, which is not destitute of wit, and forms in the Russian language a sort of apophthegm in rhime, soon spread from mouth to mouth through the army, and was the true reason that induced Paul to recal Suvarof, and dismiss him from the service. This old warrior was the idol of the Russian soldiery.

It was the same with the changes which he made in civil affairs. His wish was to alter, not to improve. For any thing to have subsisted under the reign of his mother, was a sufficient reason why it should cease under him. All the tribunals, all the governments of the empire, have been fresh modelled, and their boundaries altered. That which had been consecrated by its name (Ekaterinoslaf) to the glory of Catharine was abolished, and this public affront to the memory of his mother is not less so to the heart of Paul.† The reader may judge of the confusion, injustice, wretchedness, and ruin, that such placing and displacing must occasion in Russia: no revolution ever caused so much for the reforming of every thing, as the accession of Paul to render all things worse. Upwards of twenty thousand gentlemen were thrown out of employ.

If this new reign has been fatal to the army and to the poor gentry, it has hitherto appeared still more so to the unhappy peasantry, whose chains it tends to rivet. If Paul were determined to borrow an example from Prussia, assuredly it should have been that of her treatment of the Poles, whom treachery had subjected to her dominion. It would not be too much to say, that the Prussian government grants the polish vassals more liberty than Kosciusko could have bestowed on them, had he been victorious. The king of Prussia, far from imitating Catharine, or Paul, who distributes

* Before the reign of Paul, desertion was almost unknown to the Russians: now they desert in parties and repair to Prussia, where whole regiments are formed of them. I asked some of them, why they deserted. "Why, sir," said they, "we are forced to be at our exercise from morning till night without having any thing to eat; our clothes are taken from us, and we are beaten black and blue."

† There is nothing so trifling to which this microphilist does not descend, to shew disrespect to his mother's memory. The persons belonging to her wore rings, on which the date of her decease was enamelled. The emperor expressed his dissatisfaction at it; and they were obliged to wear rings with the motto of, Paul consoles me. He is indeed such a comforter as to make all the world laugh at him.

these

theſe ſlaves among his courtiers, thus expoſing them to more inſupportable private tyranny, has annexed them to his domains, and they experience an infinitely milder lot than formerly.*

A report being ſpread, that Paul was about to reſtrict the power of maſters over their ſlaves, and give the peaſants of the lords the ſame advantages as thoſe of the crown, the people of the capital entertained great expectations from the change. At that juncture an officer ſet off for his regiment, which lay at Orenburg. On the road he was aſked about the new emperor, and what new regulations he was making. He related what he had ſeen, and what he had heard; among other things mentioned the ukaſe which was ſoon to appear in behalf of the peaſants. At this news, thoſe of Tver and of Novgorod indulged in ſome tumultuous movements, which were conſidered as ſymptoms of rebellion. Their maſters were violently enraged with them; and the cauſe that had led them into the miſtake was diſcovered. Paul immediately diſpatched old marſhal Repnin at the head of ſome troops againſt a few villages, whoſe inhabitants had given ſcope to their joy in a manner ſomewhat tumultuous, on hearing that their new emperor intended to alleviate their bondage; and the officer, who had unwittingly given riſe to this falſe hope, by retailing the news of the town on his road, was ſoon brought back in cuſtody as a criminal, the promoter of the rebellion, and a preacher of liberty. The ſenate of Peterſburg judged him deſerving of death, and condemned him to be caſhiered, to undergo the knoot, and, if he ſurvived that puniſhment, to labour in the mines: and this for having mentioned, at a few poſt-houſes on the road between Peterſburg and Orenburg, that the new emperor, from ſentiments of humanity, was about to reſtrict the authority of maſters over their vaſſals. The emperor confirmed this abſurd and atrocious ſentence. This is the firſt criminal trial that was laid before the public; and aſſuredly it juſtifies but too well thoſe remains of ſhame which have hitherto kept ſecret ſimilar outrages. The ſenate had the effrontery to affix the ſeal of juſtice and law to this ſanguinary act, which might, no doubt, have taken place under the reign of Catharine, yet would have been accompanied with that ſilence and myſtery in which guilt enveloppes itſelf. But let us quit the cruelties of Paul, to return to his abſurdities.

The moſt prominent of theſe is that mania which, from his infancy, he has diſplayed for the military dreſs and exercile, and which has ever ſince been increaſing. This paſſion in a prince no more indicates the future general or hero than a fondneſs for dreſſing and undreſſing her doll forebodes the good mother in a girl, who paſſes her days in thoſe amuſements. Frederick the

* All thoſe princes who have wiſhed to raiſe the people and depreſs the great, the better to eſtabliſh the authority of government, have endeavoured to annex all ſeignorial rights and eſtates to their own domains. The Ruſſian autocrates take the oppoſite courſe: they diſtribute the domains of the crown among the nobility, to render them more zealous ſupporters of a government more ſevere than ever was that of the feudal ſyſtem. By this ill-judged policy they render themſelves incapable of reſtoring liberty to their ſlaves at a future period.

Great,

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Great, the most accomplished soldier of his time, is well known to have had, from his infancy, the most insuperable repugnance to all those minutiæ of a corporal to which his father would have subjected him: this was even the first source of that disagreement which ever subsisted between the father and son. It was only by stealth that the young Frederick could indulge himself in studying history and literature with his preceptor du Hahn. Frederick William considered every book, except the Psalms of David and his military regulations, as useless or dangerous; and when he saw the young Frederick, not confining himself to the guard's march, but wishing to exchange his little drum for a harpsichord, and his fife for a German flute, he forbad him music. This paternal tyranny had the opposite effect to what his father intended: it gave more energy to Frederick's repressed desires. He acquired information; he became a hero: his father was never any thing more than a corporal.*

Peter III. carried likewise his soldatomania to a ridiculous excess, fancying he had taken Frederick for his model. He was fond of soldiers and arms, and it is common to be fond of horses and dogs. He knew nothing but how to exercise a regiment, and never went abroad but in a captain's uniform. And, after all, this Peter III. at the head of a regiment so well drilled by himself, had not the courage to face a young woman, on her march to meet him with a few companies of the very same guards, who were totally ignorant of the Prussian exercise. He lost both his crown and his life, without daring to defend them. Certainly a more local, strong, and recent example cannot be adduced against this mania, which seems rather to exclude courage and military talents than to be a sign of them. It is very easy to put on a coarse surtout buttoned over the belly, to wear a greasy hat,† and a sword behind the back: a man may even spend the whole day on the parade, caning the soldiers and abusing the officers:—but this would be a satirical caricature of a great king; it would be to represent him as a recruiting officer, affecting to give himself airs. But, says Moliere:

Quand sur une personne on prétend se régler,
C'est par les beaux côtés qu'il lui faut ressembler:
Et ce n'est pas du tout la prendre pour modèle
que de tousser et de cracher comme elle.

"When admiration bids us mimic others,
"We in their virtues should the semblance hit,
"Nor will the sage and fool e'er pass for brothers,
"Because forsooth alike they cough or spit."

There is one part of this great king's conduct of far more utility, and almost as easy to imitate, since it requires neither talents nor genius, but merely good will, patience, and a love of justice; this is

* I know some young Russians, whose genius the same causes have only served to display: thus a good bow springs from under the hand that bends it.

† Paul affects to wear a dirty hat: but where lies the merit of this? Since he will have every one do his duty, why not make his *valets-de chambres* do theirs, in beating and brushing his old beaver? and, by this important service, give them an opportunity of sooner meriting the rank of privy-counsellors?

for

for a ſovereign to receive, like him the petitions and letters of his ſubjects, but particularly to anſwer them. The perſeverance and exactneſs with which he always adhered to this reſolution, which he adopted at the commencement of his reign, cannot be too much admired. Whether he granted or refuſed, whether he found the petition reaſonable or unreaſonable, he anſwered every man who addreſſed him. I have ſeen ſeveral of thoſe anſwers, admirable for their preciſion and ſagacity; yet Frederick found time to do and to write other things beſide anſwering letters. He did not riſe earlier than Paul; but he ſtaid only a quarter of an hour on the parade, and often did not go to it at all.

Nothing could be more worthy of a Ruſſian autocrat than to eſtabliſh a ſimilar correſpondence between himſelf and his ſubjects, ſince arbitrary acts and public violences are nowhere ſo frequent or ſo enormous. Hitherto, every man who had the audacity to preſent a requeſt immediately to the ſovereign, even under the reign of Catharine, was ſent to priſon. Paul appeared to have aboliſhed this atrocious cuſtom from the day of his acceſſion, and took ſome papers that were offered him. He even ordered a ſort of office to be conſtructed on the ſtairs of the palace, into which any one might put letters; and gave public notice, that he would read them all, make the neceſſary inquiries, and then anſwer them. In conſequence, he forbad any one to diſturb him in future on the wacht-parade, and ordered thoſe to be arreſted who ſhould thenceforth approach him with a paper in their hand. In the mean time, the box of the letter-office was ſoon filled; and Paul, contrary to his expectation, finding more petitions than accuſations, became tired of entering into the merits of them; and was frightened at their number. He did not reflect that they would neceſſarily diminiſh in proportion as he employed more readineſs and method in anſwering them.* Things returned to their former chaotic ſtate; and the ſecretaries directed to examine theſe pieces are, as before, arbiters of the fate of thoſe unfortunate perſons who apply to their maſter.

The finances of the empire, exhauſted by the prodigalities, and ſtill more by the waſte of Catharine's reign, required a prompt remedy; and to this Paul ſeemed at firſt to turn his thoughts. Partly from hope, partly from fear, the paper money of the crown roſe a little in value. It was to be ſuppoſed, that the grand duke of all the Ruſſias, who for thirty years had been obliged to live on an income of a 100,000 rubles (10,000*l.*) per annum, would at leaſt have learned economy per force; but he was ſoon ſeen to heap wealth upon ſome, and laviſh favours upon others, with as much profuſion as his mother, and with ſtill leſs diſcernment. The ſpoils of unhappy Poland continued

* Paul has ſometimes given orders reſpecting the letters he has received, but he does not anſwer them. I myſelf have drawn up a few very brief, clear, and juſt requeſts, for ſome oppreſſed perſons, which remained unanſwered. He now cauſes his refuſals to the petitions he receives to be printed in the Peterſburg gazettes. By this means the ſovereign, who ought to be in regard to his people what a confeſſor is to his penitent, publiſhes himſelf the ſecrets of families, and betrays the confidence of his ſubjects.

to

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to add to the riches of men already too wealthy.* A man must be acquainted with the inexhaustible sources whence a Russian autocrate can draw his means, not to be struck at the immense presents he bestowed on his courtiers, and at the same time disgusted at the little he has dedicated to the public, to justice, to merited rewards, and true beneficence.†

The eagerness with which Paul seized the reins of government, and the terror inspired by his known rigor and activity, at first disappointed the dark intrigues of the knaves and villains, who had misapplied the treasures of the state to their own profit. The prevention of the scandalous dilapidations of these treasures would double the amount of them; and it is to be presumed, that, every thing being re-modelled, the robbers will be obliged to suspend their operations for a time; but, when once they are acquainted with the emperor's course, they will regulate their own accordingly; they will dig other mines, and contrive new channels; pillage and collution will revive, and be reduced to a system, as before. Theft is a vice inherent in the Russian government, and springs from the character of the nation, to which morals, probity, and public spirit are strangers.‡

It must be confessed that, morally speaking, the people about Paul are better than those that were about his mother, and that he will be more culpable than she if he allow the same disorders to prevail. It is true that Catharine pretended to lead her cattle, and that Paul, on the contrary, will suffer himself to be led by footmen rather than by statesmen; he would feel himself humbled because of his vulgar self-love, in following the advice of a man who should seem better informed than himself. The person who has more immediate influence on his actions than his ministers, or even his mistress will ever have, is a valet-de chambre, by birth a Turk,

* I am informed that the emperor, on his coronation, among other gratuities, distributed eighty-two thousand *souls* among about a score of people; that is to say, in the language of mortals, that he has made presents of tracts of land inhabited and cultivated by eighty-two thousand male slaves; for in Russia a woman is not a soul yet. By these donations the emperor cedes the private rights which he claims over these wretched beings, and the lands they are obliged to cultivate, reserving to himself only the sovereignty. Now if we suppose the *slave-soul*, or peasant, to bring the *body*, or gentleman who possesses it, only seven rubles clear per annum, which is a very moderate computation, it follows that the emperor has given away so much of the domains of the crown as would produce a net income of five hundred and seventy-four thousand rubles (57,400*l.*) which, considering the nature of the property, is a capital beyond estimation. Catharine, by her profusion in this way, had nearly disposed of all her domains; but the confiscated estates and starosties in Poland constitute the fund to which the present emperor has recourse. It need not be mentioned, that a population of eighty-two thousand males in Russia or Poland must occupy an immense district.

† All that Paul's talents have enabled him to do for the restoration of a sort of equilibrium between his receipts and disbursements, is reduced at last to an exorbitant tax, which he has just laid on all the classes of his slaves. The poll-tax of the wretched vassals has been doubled, and a new tax has been imposed upon the nobles, which however the vassals must ultimately pay.

‡ The French author confesses, that while he was writing this, he scarcely expected to find the same infamous conduct triumphing under a *republican form* of government, and in a *regenerated* nation.

made

made a ſlave in his infancy, and brought upon in his houſe. It is to this Turk, named Ivan Pavlovitch Koteizof, the generals and great men are eager to pay their court, as the real fountain of Paul's private favour. Love is the ſtrongeſt and moſt excuſable of paſſions: its exceſſes and abuſes, therefore, appear leſs odious, and the reign of favourites, or of miſtreſſes, will never be ſo humiliating as that of valets. Beſides their bad education, which gives a ſtrong prepoſſeſſion againſt them, the influence a prince allows them has always ſomething mean and repulſive, and ſavours ſtrongly of the water-cloſet.*

Parallel between Paul and his Father. From the ſame.

PAUL, both in his mode of life while grand-duke, and his conduct ſince his acceſſion, ſo ſtrongly reſembles his father; that, changing names and dates, the hiſtory of the one might be taken for the hiſtory of the other. Both were educated in a perfect ignorance of buſineſs, reſiding at a diſtance from court, where they were treated as priſoners of ſtate rather than as heirs to the crown; making their appearance there from time to time as ghoſts or aliens. The aunt of the father (Elizabeth) acted preciſely as the mother of the ſon has done ſince. The endeavours of each were directed to prolong their infancy and to perpetuate their inſignificance, and even to render them odious and contemptible to the nobles and people. The young princes were both diſtinguiſhed by great vivacity of body and a great apathy of mind, by an activity which, for want of proper object and aliment, degenerated into turbulence; that of the father was ſunk in debauchery, that of the ſon, loſt in the moſt inſignificant trifles. An unconquerable averſion to ſtudy and reflection gave to both that ſingular infatuation for military puerilities, which would probably have diſplayed itſelf leſs forcibly in Paul had he been a witneſs of the ridicule they drew upon Peter.†

The

* This Ivan Pavlovitch is at preſent counſellor of ſtate, and has the title of excellency. Many lackeys, *koſ*, or *kammer-fouriers*, gentlemen of the bed-chamber, are every day riſing to the higheſt poſts. Thus extremes meet each other: the Muſcovite licentiouſneſs leads to that equality of rights which it conſiders with horror: but here it is a real calamity. A great Ruſſian lord was accuſtomed to hold out his hand familiarly to every ſculllon or ſhoe-black that he met at court, ſtyling them *brat*, or *batinſchka*, brother or father. A gentleman expreſſing ſurpriſe at this familiarity, the lord ſaid, "it is from policy, ſir; between this and to-morrow, theſe fellows may become my colleagues." Such is Ruſſian equality: it is that of Tarquin cutting off the heads of his talleſt poppies, or of a ſultan creating his water-carrier prime vizier. This is quite in order: the ſultan and the Turkiſh water carrier, the Ruſſian knez and eſtopnik (1) are generally on an equality in knowledge and merit.

† A ſingular oppoſition may commonly be obſerved between father and ſon, if any ſtriking feature exiſt in their characters. A well-diſpoſed ſon will frequently poſſeſs that virtue which is directly oppoſite to his father's vice, particularly if he has ſeen its fall, or fallen its victim. I could adduce private inſtances particularly intereſting to myſelf; but thoſe of three or four ſucceſſive kings of Pruſſia are particularly ſtriking. Frederick I. was as remarkable for his politeneſs and munificence as his ſon for his roughneſs and parſimony. The great king of Pruſſia avoided both extremes. The grandfather poſſeſſed

(1) The menial ſervant that lights the fires at court.

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The education of Paul, however, was much more attended to than that of his father. He was surrounded in his infancy by persons of merit, and his youth promised a capacity of no ordinary kind.* It is even probable that the eccentricities he has since contracted are to be ascribed rather to the modes of life, which he has in a manner been obliged to adopt, than to any natural defects. It must also be allowed, that he is exempt from many of the vices which disgraced Peter: temperance and regularity of manners are prominent features of his character; features the more commendable, as having hitherto been rarely found in a Russian autocrate. To this education and his knowledge of the language and character of the nation, it is owing that he differs from his father in other valuable qualities. If he has the wisdom to profit by these advantages, he will not fall into the same errors and misfortunes.

The similarity which, in some instances, has marked their conduct towards their wives, is still more striking; and in their amours, a singular coincidence of taste is observable. Catharine and Mary were the finest women of the court, yet both failed in gaining the affections of their husbands. Catharine had an ambitious soul, a cultivated mind, and the most amiable and polished manners. In a man, however, whose attachments were confined to soldiers, to the pleasures of the bottle, and the fumes of tobacco, she excited no other sentiment than disgust and aversion. He was smitten with an object less respectable and less difficult to please. The countess Vorontzof, fat, ugly in her person, and vulgar in her manners, was more suitable to his low guard-house taste; and she became his mistress.†

In like manner the regular beauty of Mary, the unalterable sweetness of her disposition, her unwearied complaisance, her docility as a wife, and her tenderness as a mother, have not been sufficient to prevent Paul from attaching himself to mademoiselle Nelidof, whose disposition and qualities better accord with his own. She is a little homely girl; but seems desirous, by her wit and address, to compensate for the disadvantages of her person: for a woman to be in love with Paul it is necessary she should resemble him.‡

On their accession to the throne, neither the father nor the son were

fected and honoured the sciences ostentatiously; the son persecuted them, and endeavoured to render them contemptible. The grandson cherished them, and cultivated them himself. The first was a royal courtier; the second, a royal corporal; the third a royal hero. This contrast between father and son has not been observable for a long time in Russia, as one has not been the other's successor; but it is now about to appear in a very striking manner. Catharine and Paul are the two extremes, and the grand-duke Alexander promises fair to be at some future day the happy mean between both.

* Louis XVI. and Frederick the Great, loaded with favours and honours those who had superintended their education. The aged Æpinus, Paul's tutor, is threatened with the fate of Seneca and Burrhus. That of colonel L'Harp and major Masson, who were tutors to his son, would be still less envied, should they fall again into the hands of Paul.

† She got drunk with him, and swore like a trooper: she squinted, and spat when she was talking.

‡ He has lately proved fickle. Mademoiselle Nelidof, who lived on tolerable terms with the empress, is dismissed, and a young lady of the name of Lapukhin is now the favourite.

favourites

favourites either of the court or of the nation, yet both acquired momentary popularity and favour. The first steps of Paul appeared to be modelled, but improved, on those of Peter. The liberation of Koschiusko and other prisoners brought to public recollection the recal of Biren, Munich, and Lestocq, with this difference, that Peter III. did not disgrace those acts of clemency or justice, by ridiculous violences, or odious and groundless persecutions. Both issued ukases extremely favourable to the nobility, but from motives essentially different, and little to the honour of the son. The father granted to the Russian gentry those natural rights which every man ought to enjoy: while the object of the son was merely to revive those distinctions which in the present day are become obsolete and ridiculous.* In the conduct which he has observed towards the clergy, Paul, however, has shewn himself a superior politician: instead of insulting the priests, and obliging them to shave their beards, he has bestowed the orders of the empire on the bishops, to put them on a footing with the nobility, and flattered the populace and the priesthood by founding churches from divine inspiration.† From all which it follows, that Peter had a sounder mind and a better heart, but that he was imprudent; and that Paul has more subtlety and prejudices, and that he is a hypocrite.

In his military operations, however, his grand policy appears to have failed him, because here he was hurried away by his ruling passion. The quick and total change of discipline he has introduced in his armies has created him nearly as many enemies as there are officers

* Paul has now taken it into his head to create an heraldic nobility in Russia! Formerly this gothic institution was unknown there. The tzar Fedor even ordered the patents, of which some families would have availed themselves, to be burned. Have the Russians but now reached the twelfth century? They were the only nation in Europe, who, in their rapid progress to civilization, bounded over this folly.

† A soldier in the guards having stood sentry at a door of the summer palace (an old wooden house in which Elizabeth resided), went to his captain, pretending he had a secret to communicate. He informed him, that while he was on duty, he saw a light in the uninhabited apartments of the palace, and presently some person knocked at the door at which he stood, and called him by name. He had the courage to look through the chinks in the door, and there beheld St. Michael. The saint ordered him to go to the emperor, and tell him that he must build him a church on that spot. In consequence, the soldier begged him to speak to the emperor, or he must take the liberty to do it himself, in obedience to his mission. The officer treated the visionary as a madman, and sent him about his business; he, however, mentioned the adventure to the major, who thought proper to relate it to Paul. The soldier was called, and ordered to repeat the account of his vision. The emperor told him, that St. Michael should be obeyed, for he had already been inspired with the design of building him a church, and had even the plan prepared. On this he sent for a model of a church, which he had ready in his closet. Does not this sound like a legend? yet this farce took place at the court of Russia in the month of December, 1796, and the author was, in part, a witness to it. The palace is pulling down, and a church and a new palace are begun, dedicated to monseigneu Michael.—*Gospodi pomilui* (1)—The miracle is unravelled, when it is known that a cousin of the soldier was one of Paul's valets de-chambres; and that the soldier, by way of recompense, was promoted to the same post. We may expect soon to see him counsellor of state.

(1) The usual exclamation which the Russians make, crossing themselves at the same time, when they see any thing extraordinary. It is one of the burdens of the litanies, "Lord have mercy."

and

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and soldiers. The preference he gives to the old Germans in his service may prove as fatal to him as it did to his father. In the distrust and suspicions which incessantly haunt him, his inferiority to his father is also apparent. One of the first acts of Peter III. was to abolish the political inquisition, established by Elizabeth; whereas Paul has prosecuted no scheme with greater alacrity than that of establishing a system of spies, and devising means for the encouragement of informers. The blind confidence of the father was his ruin, but it flowed from a humanity of disposition always respectable. The distrust of the son may not save him: it is the offspring of a timorous mind, which by its suspicions is more apt to provoke than to elude treason.

From the conformity of character observable, in so many particulars, between these two princes, we might be led to conclude that the catastrophe of the one will be that of the other: but this seems at present not at all probable; for striking as the resemblance is between Peter and Paul, the persons who compose their courts, and the circumstances of the times, are no less strikingly different.

Portraits of the Grand Dukes Alexander and Constantine. From the same.

WE have already seen, that Catharine was prevented by death from executing another design, which would have proved more fatal to Paul, but that the youth and natural good disposition of his eldest son defeated it; who by the purity of his morals and his personal qualities inspires a high degree of admiration. That ideal character which enchants us in Telemachus is almost realised in him: however, though his mother may have the domestic virtues of a Penelope, he is very far from having had a Ulysses for his father, or a Mentor for his tutor. He may be reproached, too, with the same defects which Fenelon has allowed in his imaginary pupil;* but these are, perhaps, not so much failings as the absence of certain qualities not yet developed in him, or which have been stifled in his heart by the miserable companions that have been assigned him. He inherits from Catharine an elevation of sentiment and an unalterable equality of temper; a mind just and penetrating and an uncommon discretion; but a reserve and circumspection unsuitable to his age, and which might be taken for dissimulation, did it not evidently proceed rather from the delicate situation in which he was placed between his father and grandmother, than from his heart, which is naturally frank and ingenuous. He inherits his mother's stature and beauty, as well as her mildness and benevolence: while in none of his features does he resemble his father, and he must certainly dread him more than love him. Paul, conjecturing the intentions of Catharine in favour of this son, has always behaved coldly towards him; since he discovers in him no resemblance of character,

* "With a generous and well-disposed heart, he appeared neither obliging nor sensible to friendship, nor liberal nor grateful for the pains taken on his account; neither was he prompt to acknowledge merit," &c. Telemachus, book xvi.

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and no conformity of taste with himself: for Alexander appears to do what his father requires of him, from a principle of filial duty rather than compliance with his own inclinations. His humanity has acquired him the hearts of the soldiers, his good sense the admiration of the officers; he is the constant mediator between the autocrat and those unhappy persons who, by some trifling neglect, may have provoked imperial wrath and vengeance. This pupil of L'Harpe requires not the dignity of grand-duke of Russia to inspire sentiments of love and interest; nature has richly endowed him with the most amiable qualities, and his character of heir to the greatest empire in the world cannot render them indifferent to humanity. Heaven, perhaps, may have destined him to render thirty millions of people more free than they are at present, and more worthy of being so.

His character, however, though amiable, is passive. He wants the courage and confidence to discover the men of merit, always modest and unobtrusive; and it is to be feared, that the most importunate and impudent, who are generally the most ignorant and vicious, will find least difficulty in procuring access to him. Yielding too easily to the impulses of others, he does not sufficiently consult his own heart and understanding. He appears to have lost his relish for instruction, on losing his masters, and especially colonel L'Harpe, his first preceptor, to whom he owes all the knowledge he has acquired. A premature marriage may have contributed to diminish his energy; and it is probable that, notwithstanding his good qualities, he will become in time the dupe of his courtiers, and even of his valets.

From this account of his character, it cannot be supposed that he will ever undertake of himself the odious project with which Catharine wished to inspire him. However, during the last illness of the empress, and for several days after her death, he was detained about the person of his father with such marks of tenderness as seemed to betray symptoms of distrust. Scarcely was he allowed an hour in the day to visit his young duchess. The emperor surrounded him with officers on whom he thought he could rely, and removed from their places all those who were not his creatures and spies: he took from him his own regiment to give him another, and appointed him military governor of Petersburg, naming at the same time, for his assistant or guardian, the ferocious Araktscheief. The revenue of the young prince, which hitherto had not exceeded thirty thousand rubles* (3000*l.*) was increased to two-hundred thousand (20,000*l.*); and his father, by employing him in many trifling concerns, which detained him about his person nearly the whole day long, was manifestly desirous of watching over him himself. It is impossible not to praise the emperor for having thus brought

* The great, the generous Catharine, whose magnificence astonished the universe, and who gave rubles by millions to her favourites, left her son and grandsons in want of necessaries. Thirty thousand rubles in paper for a grand-duke of all the Russias! equal to sixty thousand livres French money (2500*l.*) Sometimes they were given in gold or silver: but they who had the management of the revenues of the young princes, took care to pay the usurer, so that in their hands they were diminished nearly half.

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about by means so mild and natural, the object of his unjust suspicions; and we are pleased with these marks of affection for his children, after being fifteen years without having the resolution to shew them the least proof of his regard.*

The vulgar, who in general judge from the most deceitful appearances, perceiving in the grand-duke Alexander a reserve and circumspection of conduct, which they mistook for pride, were at first charmed with his younger brother Constantine. This prince does not possess the advantage of so agreeable and prepossessing a person as his brother; grimace serves him for wit, and buffoonery procures him popularity. He exhibits more than one trait of resemblance to the unhappy tzarovitch Alexius, especially in his aversion to the sciences, and the rudeness of his manners. He possessed, however, the germs of a sound heart and understanding, which his first masters neglected to cultivate, and which colonel L'Harpe attempted in vain to improve, by extirpating the weeds that checked their growth. It will be happy for Constantine, when he arrives at an age of more discretion, should he revive and cultivate them himself.

In other respects, he is a son worthy of his father: the same eccentricities, the same passions, the same severity, and the same turbulence. He will never possess the information which his father has acquired, nor his capacity, though he promises in time to equal, and even to surpass him, in the art of manœuvring a dozen automatons. Can it be believed, that a prince of seventeen, lively and vigorous, would, on the morning after his marriage to a young and beautiful woman, leave his bride at five o'clock to manœuvre, by dint of blows, in the court of his palace, a couple of soldiers, who were placed there as centinels? Yet such was the conduct of the grand-duke Constantine. I know not whether this military mania announces a good general, but sure I am that it is a proof of a very bad husband.†

* I am informed that the grand duke Alexander has just been placed by Paul in the office of Besborodko, as Frederick the Great was by his father in the office of a minister, to perform the functions of a simple clerk: Whether it be to procure him instruction, or to humble and punish him, the young prince will be one day the better for it.

† Some time before his marriage, he had a detachment of soldiers given him for his amusement. After having tormented these poor wretches for some months, he went so far as to cane the major who commanded them. The major had the courage to complain to count Soltikof, and the favourite related the story to the empress. She ordered her grandson under arrest, and took from him his soldiers, who were not returned to him till after his marriage. Many other stories might be told of this young prince, but it would be only repeating the vulgar tricks of a boy without education. His grandmother perceived it too late to remedy it. In his childhood he bit and struck his masters; now he strikes the officers at their exercise, and knocks out the teeth of the poor soldiers. The king of Sweden being with all the court at a ball given by Samoilof, he said to him, "Do you know in whose house you are?—That of the greatest w—— in Petersburg." His grandmother put him under arrest.

NATURAL.

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NATURAL HISTORY.

Account of the Diſcovery of Silver, in Herland Copper-Mine; by the Rev. Malachy Hitchins. From the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

HERLAND-mine is ſituated in the pariſh of Gwinear, about ſeven miles N. E. of St. Michael's Mount, on the ſouthern coaſt of Cornwall; and two miles and a half from the mouth of the river Hayle, on the northern coaſt of the ſame county: it is contiguous to Prince George mine.

It commences in a valley on the weſt, and paſſes through a hill, which is firſt of ſteep and then of moderate aſcent, for upwards of half a mile eaſtward; when the principal copper lodes, which follow this direction, meet with a large croſs lode, by which, and by other croſs courſes and ſlookans, which interſect them in their farther progreſs, they are repeatedly heaved, and ſo diſordered by theſe heaves, in their form and poſition, and ſo changed by them, in reſpect to their compoſition, as hardly to be recognized.

The ſtrata of the diſtrict in which this takes place, conſiſt of the common metalliferous ſort of argillaceous ſlate, called *killas*.

The copper lodes of this diſtrict are remarkable for the ſhortneſs of their continuity; for, whereas other lodes may be traced to an indefinite extent in the ſame line of direction, theſe, on the contrary, are obſerved to taper away gradually, and terminate, to all appearance, at a ſhort diſtance, completely and irrecoverably.

This mine was worked about twenty years ago, when it was ſunk to the depth of one hundred fathoms from the ſurface. It was again ſet to work about eight years ſince; has now four fire-engines and two ſteam-whims on it; and is ſunk to a depth of one hundred and fifty-five fathoms below the ſurface, or, as the miners call it; from *graſs*.

It is in this latter period of its hiſtory, that a diſcovery has been made of a conſiderable quantity of ſilver ore, in a particular part of the mine, the ſingularity of which diſcovery, in this country, has much excited the curioſity of the public.

For, although the numerous veins of lead in Cornwall are richly impregnated with ſilver, and occaſionally yield ſmall quantities of ſilver ore, and even ſpecimens of native ſilver, yet, hitherto, no inſtance had been known of their yielding this precious metal in ſuch abundance; nor had any circumſtances, in the natural hiſtory of the mineral veins of this country, borne any analogy to thoſe which accompanied the preſent diſcovery.

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These circumstances therefore, having been examined with more attention than usual, shall be stated with as much precision as it is possible to obtain, from the report of those practical miners only who have hitherto inspected them.

The facts which deserve to be first noticed are, the confined and insulated position of the mass of silver ore; its great depth from the surface of the mine; and its contiguity to a copper lode.

The lode in which it occurs is one of those cross courses, as they are here called, which intersect and derange the copper lodes, and consequently are of a more recent formation.

Lodes in this direction are usually filled with quartz, but frequently produce galena; and sometimes, instead of galena, sulphurated antimony. They appear here to conform to the same laws, except in the particular instance now to be described, which forms, indeed, a very remarkable exception.

No ores of silver were observable in this lode, until at the depth of one hundred and ten fathoms from the surface, or eighty below the adit or level; and, at the farther depth of thirty-two fathoms, they disappeared.

They have been discovered only in the neighbourhood of one of the intersected copper lodes, extending no where above twelve feet from this lode, on the north, or above thirty-two feet from it, on the south, and acquiring this their greatest extent at the deepest level; for, the usual dimensions of the silver ore are not more than six feet in the former situation, and twelve feet in the latter.

It is remarkable, that at the point of contact or intersection, the contents of the silver lode are so poor as to be scarcely worth saving; and those of the copper lode are much less productive of copper than at a little distance from this point. Moreover, that the copper lode, in the vicinity of the intersection, seems to have been influenced by the same causes of improvement and declension as the cross lode; being richer or poorer in copper, as the latter was, at a correspondent level, in silver.

The richest mass of silver ore was found at the depth of two fathoms above the level at which it disappears.

After this brief account of the most striking facts, it may be proper to enter into a more particular description of the two lodes which appear, by their intersection, to have generated this body of extraneous matter.

The copper lode bears nearly east and west by the compass; the cross lode nearly north and south, or at right angles to it.

The former is about two feet broad, on an average; and it dips or underlies south, one foot in a fathom. The breadth of the latter is about two feet and a half, on an average; and its underlie is east, about eight inches in a fathom.

The heave of the copper lode is about eighteen or twenty inches to the right, in the language of the Cornish miner; the expression being so far appropriate and convenient, as it refers to the usual situation of the observer in the heaved lode.

The copper lode is filled with layers of ore and stony matter, the latter of which is here called *capel*; but the ore is usually found contiguous to the walls of the lode.

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The contents of the croſs lode are more ſingular, in reſpect to their local poſition, and more various. Only the eaſtern ſide of it produces ſilver ore, the breadth of which is in general about ſix or eight inches, although in ſome places it is greater. The other part of the lode is chiefly compoſed of quartz, intermixed with iron, manganeſe, and wolfram, together with a ſmall portion of cobalt and antimony.

The ſilver ore ſtrictly ſpeaking, is a mixture of galena, native biſmuth, grey cobalt ore, vitreous ſilver ore, and native ſilver; which, in reſpect to their proportions, follow the order in which they are here enumerated, the galena being the moſt prevalent. The native ſilver, of which ſpecimens of the greateſt beauty have been reſerved for the cabinets of the curious, is found chiefly in a capillary form, in the natural cavities of the lode.

About one hundred and eight tons of this ore have been raiſed. The miners continue to ſink near the ſame point of interſection; and ſeem confident that both lodes will ſoon become richer, becauſe ſimilar inſtances of declenſion and recovery have frequently occurred in the copper lodes of this mine, and becauſe the two lodes appear to have a reciprocal influence on each other.

Unfortunately, however, the extent of their ſpeculation is limited by the great depth of the preſent workings; for, forty-five fathoms have been ſunk ſince the firſt diſcovery of the ſilver; and twenty, or twenty-five fathoms more, are as much as can be ſunk in this mine, with its preſent mechanical powers of drawing the water; at which level, viz. one hundred and eighty fathoms from the ſurface, it would be ſomewhat deeper than any mine in Cornwall, and about one hundred and thirty fathoms below the level of the ſea, at low water mark.

The other croſs lodes in this mine produce no ſilver; moſt of them being flookans, or lodes which are eſſentially different from the argentiferous croſs lode, in the nature of their conſtituent maſs. There is one, however, in the eaſtern part of the mine, which, from its reſemblance, to that, is thought likely to produce ſilver, whenever it ſhall be explored to the ſame depth, at its point of interſection; although theſe hopes may probably be fallacious, for the argentiferous lode interſects five other copper lodes, viz. two on the north, and three on the ſouth ſide, without producing any ſilver.

General Remarks on the Eruption of a Volcano. From Dallas's Tranſlation from the Original French Manuſcripts of the Natural Hiſtory of Volcanoes, by the Abbé Ordinaire.

LET the reader figure to himſelf a Veſuvius near four thouſand feet high, Etna which is more than twelve thouſand, Pichinca which is fifteen thouſand, Cotopaxis or Antiſana, which are eighteen thouſand; or, Chinboraco, which is nineteen thouſand three hundred and ninety-two feet in height: let him imagine a column of fire of three or four miles in circumference, and ſometimes more, whoſe height is more than double that of the mountain, riſing from it with a thundering noiſe, greater than that of all the cannon in the world diſcharged together. It ſeems as if it would

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would ſet the ſky on fire; lightnings flaſh from it. The dazzling brightneſs of its fire could not be endured by the eye, did not immenſe ſpiral clouds of ſmoke moderate its fierceneſs at intervals. Theſe ſpread through the atmoſphere, which they thicken; the whole horizon is covered with darkneſs; and at length nothing is to be ſeen but the burning ſummit of the mountain, and the wonderful column of fire.

Its height, bulk, and exploſion, reſult from the confinement in which the air had been kept within the volcano. Rarefied to the higheſt degree, forced on by the increaſing heat of the immenſe pit, and preſſed more and more by the prodigious fermentation of the lava, the inflamed air, reduced to the ſize of the crater, at length eſcapes, ſpinning round and round. Breaking the top of the ſhaft, it bears it along in a thouſand peices, with ſoot, aſhes, and pumice, with which the ſides of the abyſs within are loaded. In this horrible whirlwind it is even common to ſee huge peices of calcined rock, torn from the boſom of the mountain, carried into the air.

The diſplay of this phenomenon, in its extent and duration, depends upon the degree of force in the circumſtances we have juſt mentioned. When the parts firſt raiſed loſe this force, and, being left to their own weight, would naturally ſink, thoſe that come next, being ſtill themſelves ſupported, repel and throw them off. At that juncture an overſpreading of the fire takes place at the top of the column which adds to its beauty. I think it muſt have been from this view of it that the younger Pliny drew his compariſon between the productions of that eruption of Veſuvius, by which his uncle was killed, and of which he was himſelf an eye-witneſs, and the cypreſs tree.

In a ſhort time the whole of the column turns into a horrible ſhower of red hot rocks, flints, and aſhes. Monſtrous burning maſſes are ſeen bounding and rolling down the ſide of the mountain. Woe be to thoſe places, which lie in the direction of the wind prevailing at the time of this tremendous ſhower! Pompeii, Herculaneum, and Stabiæ, three towns to the ſouth-weſt of Veſuvius, diſappeared, about ſeventeen centuries ago, by a ſimilar occurrence: and it was only in this century (the eighteenth) that they were diſcovered. A column, ſuch as that we have been deſcribing, broke over them, and the land about them; they were buried more than fifty feet under a maſs of aſhes and calcined flints, which was farther covered by a bed of lava ſeveral feet deep. If the wind be violent the aſhes are carried to an incredible diſtance.

Rome and Venice, the former of which is a hundred and fifty miles from Veſuvius, and the latter double that diſtance, have been ſeveral times incommoded by its aſhes. In our times, June, 1794, all the ſouth-eaſt of Italy was covered by them. A letter written by the archbiſhop of Tarento, dated June 18, during the eruption, ſays, "We are covered with thick clouds of volcanic aſhes." Some variation of the wind muſt have altered the firſt courſe of that light ſubſtance, as the archbiſhop in his letter preſumed that they proceeded from Stromboli or Etna. Thoſe clouds paſſed Tarento, which is more than two hundred and fifty miles from Veſuvius, went beyond Otranto, at the extremity of the pro-

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province of Lecce, and were loſt in the Mediterranean at the entrance of the Adriatic ſea, nearly four hundred miles diſtant from the point of their departure. This no doubt is prodigious: but that the tops of the houſes at Conſtantinople, which is almoſt a thouſand miles from Veſuvius, ſhould have been covered four inches with its aſhes, would have been difficult to believe, had not contemporary authors, ſome of whom were at the time living in that city, reported the fact, and uniformly dated it on the eleventh of November, 472, at noon, when the people were attending the games of the Circus, *(See l' Hiſtoire du Bas Empire, tome 8, page 59).* We are leſs ſurpriſed than to read that the aſhes of Etna, which is three times as high as Veſuvies, and a little nearer to Egypt, reached Alexandria: a town, the inhabitants of which have lately witneſſed an event, that, though of a different kind, muſt have appeared to them quite as extraordinary. At the eaſtern confines of Africa, on the firſt of Auguſt, 1798, they ſaw thunderbolts dart from the north-weſt of Europe, break ſuddenly over their ſhores, and in the courſe of a few hours completely deſtroy a powerful navy that rode at anchor before the town. I need not add, that the thunderbolts I mean were thoſe of Great Britain, directed by lord Nelſon.

Account of the Submarine Volcanoes of Santorin and the Azores. From the ſame.

THE eruption of 1767 took place between the little Kamenoi, and the iſland of Hiera. It began in the month of June. The earth, after being ſhaken violently for ſome days by the action of fire, raiſed the ſea in ſuch a manner as to occaſion a dread of its ſwallowing up all the iſlands thereabouts. A thick black ſmoke darkened the air, and infected it with ſo ſtrong a ſtench of ſulphur, that many perſons and animals were ſuffocated by it. Black aſhes, reſembling gun-powder, fell all around. Torrents of flame, iſſuing from the ſea, and waving on it to the height of ſeveral feet, lighted at intervals this horrible ſcene. The frightful mixture of different ſounds, produced by all the elements in fury, froze every heart with a dread of the horrors which every inſtant might be the reſult of their conflict.

At length, after a labour of ten or twelve days, Nature pauſed, and the effect of her agitation was diſcovered in a new iſland, which had riſen near the little Kamenoi. There was no time loſt in going to examine it. Many parts of it were ſtill burning. It was a ſhapeleſs maſs of baked ſubſtances, amalgamated by a lava, which appeared to the eye like the crumb of fine bread. But the very next day the inquirers were compelled to relinquiſh the object of their haſty curioſity and betake themſelves to flight. They felt the new ſoil moving: it roſe in ſome parts and ſunk in others. The earth, ſea, and ſky ſoon reſumed their formidable appearance. The ſymptons appeared even to ſpread wider and to threaten worſe. The boiling ſea ſeveral times changed colour: flames, following one another without intermiſſion, iſſued as from a vaſt furnace, but accompanied with aſhes and pumice. The frightful noiſe of ſubterranean thunders was heard. It ſeemed as if

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enormous rocks, darting from the bottom of the abyſs, beat againſt the vaults above it, and were alternately repelled and thrown up again; the repetition of their blows, ſays the author of the narrative, was diſtinctly heard. Some of them making or finding a paſſage, were ſeen flying up red-hot into the air, and again falling into the ſea whence they had juſt been ejected. Maſſes were produced, held together for ſome days, and then diſappeared. In this general diſorder large portions of the Little Kamenoi were ſwallowed up. Meanwhile the labour of the volcano took a larger ſurface; its ejections became prodigiouſly abundant, and a new iſland was ſeen forming. By ſucceſſive additions, continued for near four months, it made a junction with that produced in June. It was named the Black iſland, from the colour of its ſoil. It is nearly twice as large as the Little Kamenoi, and is ſeparated from it by a very narrow ſtrait. The volcano continued creating alarm till the end of May in the following year; frequently ſhaking the earth and ſea, and cauſing frightful noiſes. It even opened again, but only for a moment, on the 15th of April, and threw out a multitude of large burning rocks, which fell at the diſtance of two miles.

It is therefore proved by nine eruptions, recorded in hiſtory, that there exiſts a maritime volcano at Santorin. Theſe eruptions have happened in the ſpace of twenty-one centuries.

In July 1638 near the iſland of St. Michael, one of the Azores, where the ſea was known to be a hundred and twenty feet deep, though at a very little diſtance farther the depth becomes almoſt ſuddenly more than nine hundred; there roſe, after a labour of ſeveral weeks, an iſland, about ſix miles round. It was re-abſorbed in about the ſame ſpace of time as it had taken for its formation.

From the 6th of July to the 12th of Auguſt, this volcano never ceaſed appearing in agitation, by internal thunders and ſhocks, that convulſed the iſland of St. Michael, and occaſioned damage on it, by the heat and violent motions of the ſea, and by eruptions of flames, aſhes and pumice: but, in this inſtance, its ejections did not riſe to the level of the ocean; no new iſland appeared.

Nine and twenty years after, in 1720, amidſt the moſt frightful complication of horrors, there roſe an iſland, a little ſmaller than that of 1638, which, however, had ſufficient height to be diſcovered at ſea, from a diſtance of ſeven or eight leagues. It was obſerved to be in the ſame ſpot as that which had been occupied by the preceding ephemeral iſland, but that at the time of its new production, the ſea above the ſummit of the volcanic mountain, was not more than ninety feet. The ruins of the former emiſſions had probably occaſioned this difference: they perhaps alſo increaſed the difficulty of the labour of nature: for ſo great was the diſorder, according to the accounts that were publiſhed of this event, that many perſons died of fright.

The account of theſe three eruptions are to be found in Buffon. They are more minutely deſcribed in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, of the year 1721; and they demonſtrate the exiſtence of a ſubmarine volcano, near St. Michael's.

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The eruption of 1757 discovered another of them to us in this cluster, at the distance of eighty leagues from the former.

On the 9th of July, a little before midnight, St. George's, Pico, Fayal, three islands forming a closer group among themselves, being scarcely five leagues asunder, and Tercera, though double that distance from St. George's, were suddenly attacked at the same instant, and shaken to their foundations by horrible convulsions of the earth. The first shock lasted two whole minutes. The raised ocean no longer kept its shores. In this dreadful night many persons lost their lives, and these islands, hitherto fortunate, but at this fatal moment involved in the terrors of desolation, were covered with ruins. I pass over the particulars usual to these sad phænomena, the confused bellowings of land and water, the smoke and ashes which filled the air, and the flames issuing from the ocean, to come to the result of this turbulent labour of nature, which was the production of eighteen little islands, that rose insensibly from beneath the sea, at the distance of about ten yards from the north coast of St. George's. They disappeared in a few months, as those produced by the volcano of St. Michael had done before. The maritime peaks of the Azores have, according to all appearance, less surface than that of Santorin; whence I imagine proceeds the instability of the productions of the former volcanoes, and the stability of those of the latter. It was observed that Flores, Corvo, St. Michael and St. Mary's, were not at all affected by the eruption of the volcano of St. George's, and that Gracioſa suffered very little.

Account of the remarkable Inſtinct of a Bird called the Nine-killer, communicated by Mr. John Heckewalder to Dr. Barton. From the American Philoſophical Tranſactions.

I WENT to a farm, to view a young orchard, which had been planted, about five weeks ago, under my direction, where, on viewing the trees, I found, to my great aſtoniſhment, almoſt on every one of them, one and on ſome two and three graſshoppers, ſtuck down on the ſharp thorny branches, which were not pruned when the trees were planted. I immediately called the tenant, and aſked the reaſon and his opinion of this. He was much ſurpriſed at my ignorance about the matter, and informed me, that theſe graſshoppers were ſtuck up by a ſmall bird of prey, which the Germans called *Neun toedter* (in Engliſh, nine-killer); that this bird had a practice of catching and ſticking up nine graſshoppers a day, and that as he well knew they did not devour the graſshoppers, nor any other inſects, he thought they muſt do it for pleaſure. I aſked him for a deſcription of this bird, and was perfectly ſatisfied that it lived entirely on ſmall animals, ſuch as ſmall birds, mice, &c. for I had paid attention to this bird as early as the year 1761, when, in the winter, one of the ſame ſpecies took a favourite little bird of mine out of my cage at the window, from which time I have watched them more cloſely, and have found them more numerous in the weſtern country than here. Not being ſatisfied with what the tenant had told me reſpecting the intention of the bird's doing all this (viz.

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(viz. for diverſion's ſake), and particularly obſerving each and every one of theſe graſshoppers ſtuck up ſo regularly, and in their natural poſition as when on the ground, not one of them having its back downwards, I began to conjecture what might be the real intention which the bird had in this, and my determined opinion was, that this little bird-hawk, by inſtinct, made uſe of this art, in order to decoy the ſmaller birds, which feed on inſects, and by theſe means have a fair opportunity of catching them. All this I communicated to my friends on my return home, and they were not leſs aſtoniſhed at what I had related to them, than I had been on diſcovering the fact. It being agreed that ſome gentlemen of learning and obſervation ſhould more minutely examine into this matter, the proprietor of this farm, with another gentleman and myſelf, went this day out for the purpoſe; and viewing the graſshoppers on a number of theſe ſmall trees (ſome of which we cut off, and took home), we returned to the tenant, who not only himſelf but alſo his father and ſiſter gave us the beſt aſſurances, that they had, long ſince, and from time to time, obſerved this bird catching graſshoppers and ſticking them up in the manner already related, and that ſometimes they had obſerved, in places where this ſpecies of bird keeps, numbers of graſshoppers ſtuck up on a thorn-buſh in like manner. The reverend Mr. V. Vleck is perfectly ſatisfied that this bird-hawk is the Lanius Canadenſis (in Bartram), and has obligingly communicated the following account of this little bird-hawk to me: it is extracted from a German publication printed at Gœttingen, 1778, under the title of "Natural Hiſtory for Children, by M. George Chriſtian Paff," who after giving a deſcription of the different ſpecies of this bird, concludes thus: "Why is this bird of prey called the nine-killer? Becauſe it is ſaid to have the habit of ſticking beetles or other inſects, and perhaps ſometimes nine of them in ſucceſſion, upon thorns, that they may not eſcape until he has leiſure to devour them all at once. And for the ſame reaſon, it is ſometimes called the thorn-ſticker." Now by the above account, we ſee that it is known in Europe that this ſame ſpecies of birds actually does ſtick up inſects of different kinds on thorns, &c. but it is ſuppoſed they eat them immediately after being ſtuck up. Here the caſe is quite otherwiſe. They remain ſtuck up, for we muſt ſuppoſe theſe to have been ſtuck up at leaſt ſome weeks ago, and before the hard froſt ſet in. The very birds (as we ſuppoſe) that ſtuck them up are now on the ſame ground, watching the ſmaller birds that come out to feed, and have been ſeen catching the latter but a few days ago. If it were true, that this little hawk had ſtuck them up for himſelf, how long would he be feeding on one or two hundred graſshoppers? But if it be intended to ſeduce the ſmaller birds to feed on theſe inſects, in order to have an opportunity of catching them, that number, or even one half, or leſs, may be a good bait all winter; and all of us, who have conſidered theſe circumſtances, are firmly of opinion, that theſe inſects thus ſtuck up, are to ſerve as a bait, &c. through the courſe of the winter.

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Account of the Bat of the Mauritius. From the Viſcount de Vaux's Account of that Iſland.

IT is about a foot in length, from its poſterior extremity to its beak, and its wings ſtretch to about four feet; it has large canine teeth, conſiſting of four in the upper, and as many in the lower jaw. Its muzzle is black and ſharp; its ears large and bare; its talons are hooked, large, and compreſſed: it has no tail. Theſe bats are of different colours; ſome of a bright red, others brown, and ſome are almoſt black. They reſemble the common bat in their interior conformation, the ſhape of their wings, and the manner of ſpreading them when they fly. When theſe animals repoſe, they cling to the tops of the higheſt trees, and hang with their heads downwards. At other times, they fix themſelves upon animals, and even upon man himſelf. They feed indifferently on fruit, fleſh, and inſects. They are ſo fond of the juice of the palm tree, that they ſometimes intoxicate themſelves with it, ſo as to fall to the ground. Their horrid ſhrieks are heard, during the night, in the foreſts, at the diſtance of two miles, but they retire at the approach of day. Nothing is ſafe from the ravages of theſe deſtructive creatures; they equally deſtroy the wild and domeſtic birds, whenever they have an opportunity; and they will ſometimes attack the human kind, by ſeizing and tearing the viſage. It is very probable, as M. de Buffon has obſerved, that the ancients borrowed their ideas of harpies from theſe terrible animals. The Indians conſider them as a palatable article of food, particularly in certain ſeaſons of the year, when they are full of fat: and even ſome of the French people, both in this iſland and the iſle of Bourbon, have brought themſelves, in this particular, to follow the Indian example. The negroes, however, hold them in the greateſt horror; and no conſideration whatever could induce them to have any other concern with theſe noxious creatures, but to deſtroy them; for which purpoſe they employ uncommon dexterity. It has often happened, that perſons have been attacked, while aſleep, and bled to death by them, as they are powerful and ſubtle bloodſuckers; ſo that it is really dangerous to ſlumber in the open air, or to let them enter into a houſe during the night.

Account of the principal Rivers of Devonſhire. From Skrime's Account of the Rivers of Great Britain.

THE Tamar is one of the moſt conſiderable rivers in the weſt of England, riſing in the northern point of the diſtrict of Stratton, in Cornwall, (not far from the ſource of the Torrige, which flows to the northern ſea by Biddeford,) and dividing for a long diſtance Cornwall from Devonſhire. The Tamar's courſe is moſtly ſouthward, with ſome little variations, to the vicinage of Launceſton; it then inclines ſomewhat to the eaſt till its junction takes place, firſt with the Lyd from its cataract, wooded dell, and rocky bridge of Lydford, and then with the Tavy from Taviſtock; after which that great æſtuary is formed, which, deſcending to the ſouth in ſeveral bold ſweeps from Salt-Aſh, incloſes the dock of Plymouth, and after-

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afterwards co-operates with the Plym to create that large body of water, which conſtitutes Plymouth-Sound, thus communicating with the ſea.

The Tamar abounds in fine features, and excels in a majeſtic outline, occaſionally attended with rocks, woods, and the uſual appendages of romantic beauty. Launceſton, the county-town of Cornwall, occupies a fine eminence on the weſt, above its ſteep banks, (which are thickly fringed with wood,) remarkable for the lofty mount which forms the keep of its caſtle, and divided from Newport by the little river Atterry. Somewhat above, the Werrington deſcends to the Tamar from the north-weſt, flowing through the duke of Northumberland's pleaſant park of Werrington. On the Corniſh ſide, a little below Taviſtock, Cullteal, a curious old ſeat of Lord Edgecumbe, exhibits the wild beauties of the Tamar in great perfection, and contraſts delightfully his ornamented and extended territory of Mount Edgecumbe. The Tavy, from Taviſtock in the north-eaſt, ſoon afterwards joins the Tamar, (which is ſtill farther increaſed by the Lynher, from Callington, and the Tidi, from St. Germans on the Corniſh ſide,) and increaſing in importance, as the tide more and more influences it, ſoon becomes crowded with veſſels, and ſtretches out in broad curving branches, which interſect the country on each ſide. At length, its receding ſhores form the winding baſin of Plymouth Harbour, between the new town created by its dock, and the Corniſh borough of Salt-Aſh, preſenting an aſſemblage of objects in its ſplendid exhibition of that grand repoſitory of the Britiſh navy, which is difficult to be deſcribed, and no where to be matched.

The Plym here adds its tributary waters to the Tamar, riſing on the weſt ſide of Dartmoor, and inclining to the ſouth-weſt till it forms a large baſin beneath the old town of Plymouth, and the fine woods and plantations ſurrounding Saltcrham, the ſeat of lord Boringdon. Here is conſtituted a commodious haven for numerous merchant-veſſels which come to Plymouth, ſeparated from the greater bay filled by the men of war in the Tamar. The conflux of theſe two branches with the ſea produces that noble road for ſhipping called the Sound of Plymouth, between Cornwall and Devonſhire, opening to the ſouth-eaſt in front of that diſtant rock in the Engliſh channel, on which the famous light-houſe of Eddiſtone has at laſt been ſucceſsfully conſtructed, after various failures. The high grounds extending from the promontory of the Ram's Head defend this expanſe of water from the weſt, above which Maker Tower exalts itſelf, whence ſignals are hoiſted relating to veſſels appearing in the channel. The enchanting groves, lawns, and plantations of Mount Edgecumbe, clothe the ſides of this noble eminence with the utmoſt grandeur and beauty with which nature and art can be attended, and the choiceſt evergreens flouriſh here almoſt ſpontaniouſly, with a degree of verdure which is indeſcribable. Thus is formed a terreſtial paradiſe in the midſt of the buſieſt naval diſplay, which commands moſt happily the grand objects of the town, dock, garriſon, and hoſpitals of Plymouth, and Stonehouſe, with the baſins of the Tamar and the Plym crowded with ſhipping, and the greater bay of

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of Plymouth-Sound, varied with alternate ſtriking views over ſea and land.

The Yealme, Erme, and Aven, are three inconſiderable rivers, riſing in Dartmoor, and reaching the ſea in the ſouthern projection of the Devonſhire coaſt. The pleaſant ſpot and inn of Ivy-bridge, on the great weſtern road to Plymouth, are found on the banks of the Erme, which is there a mountain torrent. The courſe of all theſe rivers is ſouthward, a little inclined to the weſt, and each has a conſiderable æſtuary.

The Dart originates in the mountainous region of Dartmoor, deſcending firſt ſouthward, and then inclining conſiderably to the eaſt, before it quits that rude diſtrict; its winding courſe is afterwards to the ſouth-eaſt, as it paſſes Totneſs, and falls into the ſea between Dartmouth and Kingſweare.

The Dart is the principal of all thoſe rivers that are produced by the rocky range of Dartmoor in the centre of Devonſhire, which in wildneſs at leaſt, though not in height or extent, may emulate moſt of the mountainous tracts of Wales or Scotland, and can diſplay a ſtronger contraſt to the extraordinary fertility and riches of the ſurrounding diſtricts, than thoſe countries are generally capable of exhibiting.

Rapidity is its firſt characteriſtic, and this quality it retains long after it leaves thoſe mountains which encloſe its ſource, as it deſcends into the rich plains of the ſouthern part of Devonſhire. A little weſt of Aſhburton it forms a charming valley, and flows in placid beauty beneath the high hill, which is finely diſtinguiſhed by the caſtle and church of Totneſs. Here the Dart is croſſed by its laſt bridge, and, ſoon afterwards receiving the tide, it rolls in a majeſtic ſtream between bold hills covered with cultivation, woods, and villages, diſcloſing new beauties at every curve, and preſenting a grand object to the adjacent country, varied perpetually both in its form and attendant features. The noble ruin of Berry Pomeroy caſtle, an old ſeat of the duke of Somerſet, occupies an eminence on the eaſt, at ſome diſtance from the river, below which a very picturesque rivulet deſcends through a dark winding dell, adding much to the ſolemnity and beauty of the ſcene, where the deep gloom of the overhanging wood, which encircles ſeveral majeſtic towers clothed with ivy, inſpires that kind of awful dignity which ſeems ſuited to the moſt romantic periods of our ancient hiſtory. The eminences which encloſe the channel of the Dart become at laſt almoſt mountainous, forming on the weſt a barrier to the ſouthern peninſula of Devonſhire, between that river and the Tamar, and on the eaſt to the road of Torbay, while the river, winding between their wooded and rocky baſes, paſſes the very ſtriking poſition occupied by the hamlet of Kingſweare on its eaſtern bank, and the ſingular irregular town of Dartmouth on its weſtern, the whitened fronts of whoſe houſes, built in ſtages over each other, and beautifully interſperſed with wood and rock, form a curious aſſemblage of intereſting objects. The ivied walls of Dartmouth-caſtle, with its ruſtic ſpire, ſtarting out from beneath a bold rocky hill, cloſe the proſpect with great majeſty, and ſtrongly mark the proud exit of the Dart towards the ſea.

The

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The Teign is the moſt eaſtern of all the Devonſhire rivers, which take their riſe in Dartmoor; its principal ſource is found near the village of Chegford on the eaſtern ſide of that wild diſtrict, not far from Moreton-Hampſtead. Its courſe is at firſt eaſtward, inclining afterwards to the ſouth till it reaches Chudleigh, a little below which place, the ſmaller and more weſtern branch joins it: both thus united, form a broad, but ſhort æſtuary, inclining to the eaſt, which terminates in the bay of Teignmouth.

No peculiar character marks either of theſe ſtreams before their union, but the large baſin they at laſt form is a very ſtriking object, filling the whole ſpace of a winding valley between the protruding eminences, each ſide of which is beautifully interſperſed with woods, paſtures, and villages. Teignmouth is one of the pleaſanteſt bathing places on this coaſt, and the bold red rock, which forms the weſtern barrier of the Teign on its exit into the large bay at its mouth, exhibits a grand object, variegated with ſtripes of green herbage, and protuding its maſſy pile into the ſea.

Excurſions to the Summit of the Sugar Loaf and Skyrrid, Monmouthſhire: From Mr. Coxe's Hiſtory of Monmouthſhire.

HAVING received repeated accounts of the different and contraſted views from the tops of the Sugar Loaf and Skyrrid, I determined to viſit them on the ſame day. I departed at ſeven in the morning from Abergavenny, rode about a mile along the Hereford road, mounted the eaſtern ſide of the Derry, in the dry bed of a torrent, came to a heathy down, and gently deſcended to the bottom, which below appears like a cone, and is called the Sugar Loaf.

The ſides of the mountain are covered with heath, wurtle-berries, and moſs, to the height of a foot, which renders the aſcent ſo extremely eaſy, that a light carriage might be driven to the baſe of the cone, not more than one hundred paces from the ſummit. I diſmounted near a rock, which emerges from the ſide of the ridge, forming a natural wall, and reached the top without the leaſt difficulty. This elevated point, which crowns the ſummit of the four hills, is an undulated ridge, about a quarter of a mile in length, and two hundred yards in breadth, with broken crags ſtarting up, amid the moſs and heath with which it is covered.

The view from this point is magnificent, extenſive, and diverſified. It commands the counties of Radnor, Salop, Brecknock, Monmouth, Glamorgan, Hereford, Worceſter, Glouceſter, Somerſet and Wilts. To the weſt extends the long and beautiful vale of the Uſk, winding in the receſſes of the mountains, and expanding to the ſouth into the fertile plain, which is terminated by the Clytha hills. Above it towers the magnificent Blorenge, almoſt equal in height to the point on which I ſtood; and in the midſt riſes the undulating ſwell of the Little Skyrrid, appearing like a gentle eminence feathered with wood. To the north, a bleak, dreary, ſublime maſs of mountains ſtretches in a circular range, from the extremity of the black mountains above Llanthony to the Table Rock near Crickhowel; the commence-

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mencement of the great chain which extends from theſe confines of Monmouthſhire, acroſs North Wales, to the Iriſh ſea. To the eaſt, I looked down on the broken crags of the Great Skyrrid; which ſtarts up in the midſt of a rich and cultivated region. Beyond, the Malvern Hills, the Graig, the Garway, and the eminences above Monmouth, bound the horizon. Above, and on the ſide of Brecknockſhire, all was clear and bright; but below, and to the ſouth, there was much vapour and miſt, which obſcured the proſpect, and prevented my ſeeing the diſtant Severn, and the hills in Somerſetſhire and Glouceſterſhire.

This elevated point riſes 1852 feet perpendicular from the mouth of the Gavenny, and is ſeen from Bittomb-Hill, near Longleat, in the county of Wilts, and from the Stiper Stones, in the county of Salop, near the borders of Montgomeryſhire.

During my continuance on the ſummit, I felt that extreme ſatisfaction which I always experience when elevated on the higheſt point of the circumjacent country. The air is more pure, the body more active, and the mind more ſerene; lifted up above the dwellings of man, we diſcard all groveling and earthly paſſions; the thoughts aſſume a character of ſublimity proportionate to the grandeur of the ſurrounding objects; and as the body approaches nearer to the ethereal regions, the ſoul imbibes a portion of their unalterable purity.

Reluctantly quitting the ſummit, I walked down the ſide of the Derry, facing the precipitous crags of the dark Skyrrid, and in an hour entered the Hereford-road, two miles from Abergavenny, where I arrived at half-paſt eleven.

After taking ſome refreſhment and repoſe, I departed at two for the ſummit of the Skyrrid, on horſeback, and accompanied with the ſame guide who had conducted me to the top of the Sugar-Loaf. Having rode two miles along the road leading to the White Caſtle, we attempted to aſcend towards the ſouth-weſtern part of the mountain, which is diſtinguiſhed by three ſmall fiſſures. I ſoon diſcovered my guide was unacquainted with the way, and on inquiring of a farmer, was informed that the uſual route led by Landewi Skyrrid. By his direction, however, we continued at the foot of the mountain, through fields of corn and paſture, and then proceeded along a narrow path, overſpread with high broom, which in many places quite covered my horſe. Forcing our way with ſome difficulty through this heathy wood, we rode over a moor, by the ſide of the ſtone wall and hedge, which ſtretch at the baſe, reached the path leading from Landewi Skyrrid, and aſcended, on foot, the graſſy ſlope of the mountain.

The heat was ſo intenſe, the fatigue I had undergone in the day ſo conſiderable, and the effort I impatiently made to reach the ſummit ſo violent, that when I looked down from the narrow and deſolated ridge, the boundleſs expanſe around and beneath, which ſuddenly burſt upon my ſight, overcame me. I felt a mixed ſenſation of animation and laſſitude, horror and delight, ſuch as I ſcarcely ever before experienced; even in the Alps of Switzerland; my ſpirits almoſt failed, even

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curiosity was suspended, and I threw myself exhausted on the ground. These sensations increased during my continuance on the summit. I several times attempted to walk along the ridge, but my head became so giddy, as I looked down the precipitous sides, and particularly towards the great fissure, that I could not remain standing. I strongly felt the force of Edgar's exclamation, upon the summit of Dover-Cliff, which is no more than a mole-hill in comparison with this eminence:

"——— How fearful
And dizzy 'tis to cast one's eyes so low!"
"——— I'll look no more,
Lest my brains turn, and the deficient sight
Topple down headlong."

I seemed only safe when extended on the ground, and was not therefore in a condition to examine and describe the beauties of the view. However, I took out my pencil, and made a few hasty notes. The ridge of the Skyrrid seemed to be about a mile in length, extremely narrow, in general not more than thirty or forty feet broad, and in some places only ten or twelve; its craggy surface is partly covered with scant and russet herbage, and exhibits only a stunted thorn, which heightens the dreariness of its aspect. After remaining half an hour on the top, incapable of making any farther observations, I descended and went round the eastern side of the mountain, where it terminates in an abrupt precipice near the large fissure.

I walked across the meadows, along a gradual descent, through fine groves of oaks and Spanish chesnuts, to Lanvihangel-house, an old mansion belonging to the earl of Oxford. It was the ancient seat of the Arnold family, and was sold in 1722 to Auditor Harley, ancestor of the present earl. It is now inhabited only by a farmer, and contains nothing but some old furniture, a few family pictures, and some good impressions of Hogarth's prints. The place is distinguished by avenues of Scotch firs, which are the largest and finest in England. From the grounds near the front of the house, the Skyrrid presents itself with peculiar effect, the fissure seems like an enormous chasm, separating two mountains, whose impending and craggy summits vie in height and ruggedness.

It was near six o'clock, and I hastened to join a party returning from the ruins of Lanthony-Abbey. I partook of an elegant collation, provided by my friend Mr. Greene, which was spread on the banks of the Honddy: the wine, "*interiore notâ Falerni*," was cooled in the limpid and murmuring stream; the evening was placid and serene, and I forgot the fatigues of the day in convivial intercourse and social conversation.

On my return to Abergavenny, the moon shining in full splendour, gleamed on the craggy ridge of the Skyrrid, and tinged with its silvery rays the undulating and woody sides of the Derry, forming a contrast of beauty and sublimity.

In a subsequent tour, I made a second expedition to the top of the Skyrrid. I rode along the Ross road as far as Landewi Skyrrid, where there is an old gothic mansion, now a farm-house; it formerly belonged to the family of Greville, was sold by the late earl of Warwick to Henry Wilmot, esq. secretary to the lord chancellor, and is now in possession

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ſeſſion of his ſon. From this place I followed a narrow ſtoney bridle-way, till I reached the extremity of the Skyrrid, and walked up the ſame graſſy path which I had aſcended in my firſt excurſion.

I attained the ſummit without making thoſe violent exertions, or experiencing the fatigue which I had before undergone, and admired the proſpect without the ſmalleſt ſenſation of uneaſineſs or laſſitude.

I aſcended to the higheſt point of of the mountain at its north-eaſtern extremity, where a ſmall circular cavity is formed near the verge of the precipice; it is ſuppoſed to be the ſcite of a Roman catholic chapel, dedicated to St. Michael, from which the Skyrrid has derived one of its appellations of St. Michael's Mount. I could obſerve no traces either of walls or foundations; the entrance, which is to the ſouth weſt, is marked by two upright ſtones, two feet in height, on one of which are rudely carved ſeveral letters, amongſt which I could only diſtinguiſh "Turner, 1671." To this place many Roman catholics in the vicinity are ſaid to repair annually on Michaelmas eve, and perform their devotions. The earth of this ſpot is likewiſe conſidered as ſacred, and was formerly carried away to cure diſeaſes, and to ſprinkle the coffins of thoſe who were interred; but whether this ſuperſtitious practice ſtill continues, I was not able to aſcertain.

I ſeated myſelf on the brow of the cliff, overhanging the rich groves of Lanvihangel, and ſurveyed at my leiſure the diverſified expanſe of country which ſtretched beneath and around. Although the ſummit of the Skyrrid is leſs elevated than that of the Sugar-Loaf, yet its inſulated ſituation, abrupt declivity, and craggy fiſſures, produce an effect more ſublime and ſtriking than the ſmooth and undulating ſurface of the Sugar-Loaf and Derry. On the north-eaſt and eaſt, an extenſive and fertile region ſtretches from the centre of Herefordſhire to the valley of the Uſk, which, though a ſucceſſion of hill and dale, yet appears a vaſt plain, broken by a few ſolitary eminences, and bounded by diſtant hills gradually loſing themſelves in the horizon. The ſpires of Hereford cathedral gleam in the diſtant proſpect, the remains of Groſmont-caſtle are faintly diſtinguiſhed under the Graig and Garway, and the majeſtic ruins of White-caſtle tower above the church of Landewi Skyrrid. To the ſouth, the gentle ſwell of the Little Skyrrid riſes like a hillock above the town of Abergavenny, the feathered hills of Clytha, tufted with the Coed y Bunedd, and backed with the Penncamawr, beyond which appears the æſtuary of the Severn, under the cultivated eminences of Glouceſterſhire and Somerſetſhire. To the ſouth-weſt, the eye catches a glimpſe of the Uſk, purſuing through copſes and meads its ſerpentine courſe, under a continued chain of wooded acclivities. To the weſt and north-weſt, I looked down on a grand and dreary maſs of mountains, extending from Abergavenny beyond the frontiers of Herefordſhire, and domineered by the elegant cone of the Sugar-Loaf. The Black Mountains form the northern extremity of this chain, and are interſected by the ſequeſtered valley of the Honddy. Beneath yawned the abyſs of the ſtupendous fiſſure, which appears to have been cauſed by ſome violent convulſion of nature, and, according to the legends

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of superstition, was rent asunder by the earthquake, at the crucifixion of our Saviour: hence it is also denominated the Holy Mountain, by which name it is chiefly distinguished among the natives.

After contemplating the chasm above, I endeavoured to enter it down the western side of the mountain; but, finding the declivity too precipitous, I remounted the ridge, and descended the gentler slope to the east. Proceeding along its base, I turned round its north-eastern extremity, which terminates in an abrupt and tremendous precipice, and, passing over fragments of rock, entered the fissure on the north-western side of the mountain. This chasm is not less than three hundred feet in breadth; the rugged side of the Skyrrid rises perpendicular as a wall, to an amazing height:

——"the shrill gorged lark so far
Cannot be seen or heard."

The opposite crag is equally perpendicular, though far less elevated. At some distance, it appears like an enormous fragment, separated from the mountain. Its shape, and the strata of the rock, resemble that part of the Skyrrid from which it seems to have been detached; but a nearer view convinced me that it never could have fallen from the summit. Many similar fissures I observed in the Alps, and they are common in mountainous regions. The frequent springs, oozing through the interstices of the rocks, undermine the foundation; and the vast masses, thus deprived of support, either sink, or are separated from each other; till, by degrees, great chasms are formed, and the mountain seems to have been rent asunder. The western side of the smaller crag, which bounds the fissure, is wholly overhung with underwood, and forms a singular contrast with the bare and rugged precipice of the parent mountain.

I quitted this interesting mountain with regret, at the approach of evening; and as I rode slowly through the narrow vale which separates the Skyrrid from the Pen y hills, I looked up to the "dread summit of the craggy bourn," on which I had experienced such various sensations.

"Skyrrid! remembrance thy loved scene renews;
Fancy, yet lingering on thy shaggy brow,
Beholds around the lengthened landscape glow;
Which charmed, when late the day-beam's parting hues
Purpled the distant cliff."

Sotheby's Poems, p. 57.

USEFUL

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USEFUL PROJECTS.

Liſt of Patents for new Inventions granted during the Year, 1801.

JOSEPH Wallis, of Meaſham, Derbyſhire, eſq. and Thomas Jewſbury, of the ſame place, cotton manufacturers; for their new method of making paſte, to be uſed in weaving and ſizing of callico, and for paſting paper, &c. Dated January, 26, 1801.

John Stevens and Thomas Angell White, both of Plymouth, coal-factors; for their new method of making bricks. Dated January 16.

Benjamin Batley, of Streatham, Surry, merchant; for a farther new method of curing and preſerving herrings and ſprats, which will alſo extend to the curing and preſerving of other fiſh. Dated January 23.

George Medhurſt, of St. James, Clerkenwell, engineer; for a new-invented compound crank, for changing a circular motion into a rectilinear one, and *vice verſa*, which is applicable to various mechanical purpoſes. Dated January 27.

John Longman, of Pentonville, organ-builder; for new-invented improvements in the conſtruction of barrel-organs, to prevent them from getting out of order; and that another muſical inſtrument or inſtruments may be internally united or attached thereto, and to play with the ſame barrel. Dated January 27.

Robert Vazie, of Down-ſtreet, Piccadilly, gentleman; for an improvement in the conſtructing, conſtruction and application of a gun, by means of removing the touch-hole from the ſide to the centre of the but-end of the barrel, and forming therefrom a cylindrical communication, &c. Dated January 28.

Thomas Parker, of Broomward, near Glaſgow, eſq. and William Telfer, and Alexander Affleck, of Glaſgow, mathematical inſtrument makers; for their improvements in preparing and manufacturing of flax hemp ſilk, and other materials. Dated February 3, 1801.

Robert Young, of the city of Bath, ironmonger; for an improved fire ſtove or grate, Dated February 3.

Edmund Cartwright, of St. Mary-le-bone, clerk, M. A.; for improvements in the framing, combining, and organizing the parts and mechaniſm of ſteam-engines, ſo as to make them more commodious and portable; and alſo in the mode of regulating their velocities and in leſſening the waſte of power. Dated February 5.

James Power, of St. Edmund's Bury, for a portable oven, on a new or improved conſtruction. Dated February 5.

Joſeph Gaſton Jean Baptiſte, comte de Thiville, of Piccadilly;

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certain new methods of giving an independent moving power to all machines, by means of hydraulic engines; and alſo of conſtructing and employing ſeparately ſeveral of their parts ſuch as wheels, piſtons, and apparatus for reducing friction, upon new principles. Dated February 5.

James Anderſon, of Mounie, Aberdeenſhire, L. L. D. for a method of economiſing fuel in the heating of houſes, and for improving the conſtruction of hot-houſes. Dated February 10.

James Weldon, of Lichfield, engineer; for his farther new-invented machine or mill, for grinding bark, and various other articles, for which he obtained former letters patent in January, 1798; and which machine or mill ſo improved may be applied to ſeveral other uſeful purpoſes. Dated February 10.

William Johnſon, of Bromley, Kent, gent.; for a machine which has the principle of its motion within itſelf, denominated the perpetual motion or mechanical ſelf-moving power. Dated February 10.

Richard Scott, of Chapel-houſe, Suſſex, lieutenant-colonel in the ſervice of the Eaſt-India company; for a method of preſerving papers and other property from being injured by fire. Dated February 10.

Marc Iſambeard Brumel, of Bedford-ſtreet, gent.; for a machine for cutting one or more mortices, forming the ſides of and cutting the pin-hole of the ſhells of blocks, &c. Dated February 10.

William Wilde, of Weſt Leake, Nottinghamſhire, farmer and grazier; for improved machinery or apparatus to be attached or connected to harrows, whereby thoſe implements of huſbandry will execute their work to much greater advantage than by any mode hitherto practiſed. February 17.

William Leſter of Cotton End, Northamptonſhire, patent harrow and chaff engine manufacturer; for his farther improvements upon an engine or machine for cutting hay and ſtraw into chaff, for which he obtained former letters-patent. Dated February 17.

Matthias Koops, of James-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, gent.; for a method of manufacturing paper from ſtraw, hay, thiſtles, waſte and refuſe of hemp and flour, and different kinds of wood and bark. Dated February 17.

John Bennock, of Liverpool, merchant; for a method or machine for making nails, bolts, rods, watch-ſprings, clock-ſprings, and metal-plates. Dated February 17.

Thomas James Plucknett, of Deptford, gent.; for improvements in capſtans and windlaſſes for ſhips and other purpoſes. Dated February 26.

Robert Gibſon, of the Adelphi, wharfinger; for a windlaſs upon an improved conſtruction, which may be applied to ſhips and other uſeful purpoſes. Dated February 26.

Ann Young, of St. James's Square, Edinburgh; for an apparatus, conſiſting of an oblong ſquare box, which, when opened, preſents two faces or tables; and of various dice, pins, counters, &c. contained within the ſame, by means of which, ſix different games may be played; which, beſides being amuſing and intereſting, and ſuch as children of eight years old may be taught to play; are, at the ſame time, an improving exerciſe upon, and ſerve to render familiar, and to impreſs upon the memory, the fundamental principles

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principles of the ſcience of muſic, particularly all the keys or modulations, major and minor, both with the common and uncommon ſignatures, muſical interval chords, diſcords with their revolutions, and the moſt uſeful rules of thorough baſs. Dated March 16.

G. T. Lenz, of Homerton, Middleſex, tanner; for a method of conſtructing tan-pits, for tanning hides and ſkins, and for ſtriking hides by machinery. Dated March 27.

John Gamble, of Leiceſter-ſquare; for a machine for making paper in ſingle ſheets, without ſeam or joinings, from one to twelve feet and upwards wide, and from one to forty-five feet and upwards in length. Dated April 20.

Thomas Binns, of Great Barlow-ſtreet, Middleſex; for a method of manufacturing candles of ſpermaceti, tallow, or any other ſolid inflammable ſubſtance. Dated April 23.

Thomas Wright, of Mark-lane, broker; for an improved method of making hand-ſtone corn-mills, for the purpoſe of grinding wheat and other grain into flour. Dated April 25.

William Bicknell, of St. George's, Hanover-ſquare; hoſier, for a method of covering felt for the making caps and helmets, and for various other uſeful purpoſes. Dated April 28.

Rudolph Ackerman, of the Strand, printſeller; and Peter James Cutteau, of Bucklerſbury, merchant; for an improved method of rendering all ſorts of woollen cloths, cotton, linen, ſilk hats, paper, and other manufactures and ſubſtances, perfectly water-proof, and ſo as to be uſed on all occaſions where a power of repelling rain, wet, or moiſture may be required. Dated April 28.

George Waring, of Buntingford, Herts; for a method of making ſoap of a peculiar quality. Dated April 28.

Richard Wilcox, of Briſtol, engineer; for improvements upon the fire or ſteam engine and furnace. Dated April 30.

William Wilſon, of Edinburgh, ſmith; for an improved plan of making, adjuſting, and ſtamping ſcale weights. Dated April 30.

Henry Tickle, of Manſel-ſtreet, Whitechapel, brewer; for an appararus or refrigerator for more ſpeedily and effectually cooling the worts and other fermented, fermentable, or other liquors; or melted or diſſolved animal or vegetable ſubſtances, manufactured, made, or uſed by or in the proceſſes of brewers, diſtillers, vinegar-makers, ſoap-makers, ſugar-refiners, chemiſts, or other manufacturers of articles of a ſimilar nature, or uſing ſimilar proceſſes. Dated May 2.

John Edwards, of Chelſea, gent.; for new-invented collars for horſes, on an improved conſtruction. Dated May 2.

William Pritchard, of Shrewſbury, hatter; and Thomas Willmore, of Birmingham, japanner; for an article for the uſe of hats, ſoldiers caps, helmets, &c. Dated May 2.

Barker Chiſney, of London, gent.; for an improved method of preparing and laying diamond and other ſlates in covering houſes and other buildings; and for preparing ſlates for other purpoſes. Dated May 2.

Joſeph Chirm, of Birmingham, pump-maker; for a machine on an improved conſtruction, for the pur-

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poſe of boring timber for water-pipes, and other purpoſes. Dated May 12.

Edward Walker, of Rathbone-place vintner; for a portable ſtove or kitchen, for the purpoſe of dreſſing and cooking victuals. Dated May 12.

William Haſe, of Saxthorpe, Norfolk, Engineer; for a ſteam-engine on an improved conſtruction, by which a conſiderable ſaving will be made in the conſumption of coals. Dated May 14.

Sebaſtian Erard, of Great Marlborough-ſtreet, muſical-inſtrument maker; for improvements in the conſtruction of harps and pianofortes. Dated May 16.

Walter Inglis, of Chelmsford, ſaddler; for a method of forming and making a ſaddle upon a new and improved conſtruction. Dated May 21.

James Glazebrook, of Coalbrook Dale, engineer; for his further improvements upon the method of working and giving power to machinery, by means of the properties of airs; which methods were originally invented by him, and for which he obtained former letters patent. Dated May 21.

Thomas Bagnall, of Worſley, Lancaſhire, gent.; for a mill or machine to chop bark, and grind, and riddle, and pound it; to beam or work green hides and ſkins out of the maſtering or drench, and make them ready and fitting for the ouſe or bark liquor; to beam ſheep ſkins, and other ſkins for the ſkinners uſe, and for ſecuring or taking the bloom off or from tanned leather when in the currying ſtate. Dated May 21.

Thomas Wakefield, of Northwich, Cheſhire, eſq.; for a new method of refining ſugar. Dated June 2.

Thomas Winter, of Shacklewell, Middleſex, gent.; for a new manufacture for covering the floors of rooms; for covering and packing goods and merchandizes, and fit to be uſed for various other purpoſes. Dated June 2.

Thomas Howard, late of Manchester, Lancaſhire, but now of Leeds, Yorkſhire, ſoap-boiler; for a new method of making a Britiſh barilla and pot-aſh, and of obtaining a greater quantity of alkali than hitherto diſcovered. Dated June 2.

Joſiah Longmore, of Birmingham, Warwickſhire, gun-lock maker; for a patten or clog. Dated June 2.

Thomas Robert Gueſt, of Portſmouth, Hants, artiſt; for boxes of a new and improved conſtruction, of various forms and ſizes, to contain certain new and improved materials, and other neceſſary articles for drawing and painting; likewiſe an intire new and improved method of arranging, on ſcientific principles, the colours to be contained in the ſaid boxes. Which arrangement will be of the greateſt utility to officers of the army, and engineers, for reconnoitering ſketches or plans; to the navy for ſignal cards, as well as to profeſſional men and private perſons. Dated June 2.

Timothy Lane, of Lincoln's-inn-fields, Middleſex, late of Alderſgate-ſtreet, London, apothecary; for meaſuring-glaſſes for compounding medicines. Dated June 5.

Egerton Smith, of Liverpool, Lancaſhire, ſtationer; and Thomas Todd, of Liverpool, aforeſaid, organ-builder; for a method of tuning, and keeping in tone, muſical and ſtring inſtruments in general. Dated June 5.

William Chapman of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, gent.; for the applica-

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tion of certain ſubſtances, either ſeparately or combined, as a preſervative of cordage. Dated June 5.

Thomas Bartlett, of Boſton, in the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, in North America, but at preſent reſiding in Threadneedle-ſtreet, London; for improvements in the conſtruction of elaſtic truſſes for ruptures. Dated June 18,

William Sellers, of Piccadilly, Middleſex, gent.; for a new-improved apparatus of machinery, for the purpoſe of diminiſhing friction, and communicating a direct rotary motion from one wheel to another, by means of cranks, which he calls alternate relieving cranks, applicable to wind or water drainage mills, or thoſe for raiſing water for irrigation, and various other uſeful purpoſes. Dated June 18.

G. T. Lenz, of Homerton, Middleſex, tanner; for a method of conſtructing tan-pits for the tanning of hides and ſkins, and for ſtriking hides by machinery. Second patent dated June 18.

John Spencer, of Duffield, Derbyſhire, nail-maſter; for a new method of making horſe-ſhoe nails. Dated June 20.

John Aloyſius Seneſelder, of Gould-ſquare, London, gent.; for a new method and proceſs of performing the various branches of the art of printing on paper, linen, cotton, woollen, and other articles. Dated June 20.

William Bolton, eſq. captain in the royal navy; for a rudder, and the means of preſerving the ſame. Dated June 23.

Thomas Witherby, of Enfield, Middleſex, gent.; for a pump, and method of working machinery. Dated June 23.

Samuel Holemberg, of Silver-ſtreet, Bridgewater-ſquare, London, goldſmith; for locks and faſtenings for general uſes, on a new and improved conſtruction. Dated June 24.

George Stratton, of Blackfriars-road, Surrey, ironmonger; for improvements in machines for cooking, and fire-places. Dated June 26.

Anthony Bowden, of Mellor, Derbyſhire, cotton carder and rover; for an engine or machine for batting or beating and cleaning cotton. Dated July 1.

James Mauley, of the township of Welton, in the pariſh of Great Budworth, in the county palatine of Cheſter; for improvements in the manufacturing of ſalt. Dated July 1.

George Medhurſt, of Pentonville, Middleſex, mathematical-inſtrument maker; for improvements in certain machines for waſhing and wringing of linen, woollen, wool, cotton, ſilk, velvet, or any other commodity that requires waſhing, cleanſing, or ſcouring. Dated July 10.

John Wilkes, of Sheffield, Yorkſhire, gun-ſmith; for a method of making ſelf-acting cylindrical ſpring ſnuffers upon a new conſtruction, which cut off, confine, and extinguiſh the ſnuff at one motion. Dated July 10.

Charles, earl Stanhope; for a new method of burning chalk, marble, and lime-ſtone into lime. Dated July 20.

William Hoard, of Deptford, Kent, ſhip-chandler; for an improved portable machine for manufacturing ropes and cordage, of any length, in a ſhort ſpace of ground, peculiarly adapted for ſhipping. Dated July 20.

Archibald, earl of Dundonald; for a new method or methods of

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preparing a ſubſtitute or ſubſtitutes for gum-ſenegal, and other gums, extenſively employed in certain branches of manufacture. Dated July 31.

Mark Brocone, late of New Town, Ireland, but now of Cooper's Court, Tower-hill, London, eſq.; for an inſtrument or engine, poſſeſſing a power to work engines or machines, whether on water or land, or for other purpoſes to which the ſame can be applied. Dated July 31.

Matthew Murray, of Holbeck, in the pariſh of Leeds, Yorkſhire, engineer; for an improved method of conſtructing the air-pump, and ſundry other parts belonging to a ſteam-engine, by which a conſiderable ſaving will be made in the conſumption of fuel, and an increaſed power obtained. Dated Auguſt 11.

William Fitzgerald, of Gray's Inn, Middleſex, eſq.; for a mathematical inſtrument, to be called, "The Marine Level," the properties of which are to ſhew every deviation from the horizontal plane of ſhips and veſſels, and which is alſo applicable to various purpoſes in ſurveying, levelling, and aſcertaining vertical and perpendicular ſituations. Dated Auguſt 11.

Benjamin Hawkins, late of Saratoga, in the ſtate of New York, in the United States of America, but now of Red-Lion-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, Middleſex, merchant; for a new floating mill or engine, to be worked by tides and currents of water for grinding all ſorts of grain, and various other purpoſes. Dated Auguſt 20.

Lionel Lukin, the younger, of Conham-houſe, Glouceſterſhire, eſq.; for a new method of giving power to machinery by the application of air and water. Dated Auguſt 20.

William Parkes, of Newington Butts, Surrey, profeſſor of philoſophy; for a perpetual power that will give motion to all kinds of machinery, mills, engines, carriages, ſhips of war, mercantile, and other veſſels, lighters, craft, and boats of every deſcription. Dated Auguſt 20.

John Theodore Koſter, late of Liſbon, but now reſiding in St. Andrew's Court, Holborn, Middleſex, merchant; for a new method of building carriages. Dated Auguſt 31.

James Whitby, of Collumpton, Devonſhire, George Bodley, of the city of Exeter, iron-founder, and John Davis, of Collumpton, aforeſaid; for a mill for grinding bark. Dated September 3.

Thomas Germain, of the pariſh of St. George Bloomſbury, Middleſex, gent.; for a method of greatly eaſing the labour, and leſſening the number of horſes in the draft of coaches, carts, waggons, drays, and all land carriages whatſoever. Dated September 12.

Thomas Jotham, of Bradford, Wiltſhire, clothier; for a machine for raiſing the wool pile or fibres on woollen, cotton, or other piece goods, preparatory to ſhearing; and for dreſſing or dubbing cloths, either wet or dry, otherwiſe than by green cards and pickards. Dated September 15.

Zachariah Barratt, of Gealing, Nottinghamſhire, cabinet-maker; for a method of grinding corn, or other grain, by a new-invented mill or machine, either moveable or immoveable, and intended to be worked by water, wind, horſes, hand, or otherwiſe. Dated September 18.

James

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James Tremeere, of Lamb's-Conduit-paſſage, Middleſex, carpenter; for a method of working barges and other veſſels. Dated October 5.

William Bullock, of Portland-ſtreet, Soho, Middleſex, cabinet-maker; for a faſtening to be applied to ſaſhes or dining-tables. Dated October 8.

Samuel Miller, of Cleveland-ſtreet, St. Pancras, Middleſex, engraver; for a machine or proceſs for manufacturing materials for the better ſecuring walls and roofs of houſes from lateral preſſure, and the inclemency of the weather, by which proceſs the buildings will be built of better materials, and rendered more durable. Dated October 13.

William Symington, of Kinnard, Stirlingſhire, engineer; for a mode of conſtructing ſteam-engines, and applying their power to the purpoſe of producing a rotary and other motions without the interpoſition of a lever or beam. Dated October 14.

Thomas Fryer, of Raſtrick, near Haliſax, Yorkſhire; for a method of manufacturing and finiſhing goods from cotton, cotton and woollen, cotton and ſilk, cotton and linen, or cotton and mohair, in ſuch manner as to make the ſame appear as if covered with ermine or fur, and in imitation thereof. Dated October 30.

Richard Brayſhay, of Liverpool, Lancaſhire, gent.; and William M'Mahon, of the ſame place, gent.; for a machine for the purpoſe of gaining an increaſed ſpeed and power to all mechanical operations by land and water. Dated October 30.

John Walker, of Tufton-ſtreet, in the pariſh of St. John, Weſtminſter, Middleſex, accoutrement-maker; and Godfrey Alphy, of the ſame place, painter; for a method of making and manufacturing men's hats and caps, and rendering them perfectly water-proof; as alſo all kinds of leather, cotton, linen, ſilk, ſtuffs, paſteboard, and other manufactures and ſubſtances, for the purpoſe of being worked up into ſhoes, boots, women's hats and bonnets, and other wearing apparel, and to be uſed on all occaſions where a power of repelling wet or moiſture may be required. Dated November 3.

William Jackſon, of Eaſingwould, Yorkſhire, gent.; for a machine or drill to be fixed to a plough-beam for drilling or ſowing turnips. Dated November 3.

David Stewart, of Woodlands, in the pariſh of Greenwich, Kent, gardener; for a method of ventilating dwelling-houſes, theatres, hoſpitals, and other buildings; and alſo of ventilating, heating, and conſtructing of every kind of buildings for forwarding or preſerving trees, plants, ſhrubs, flowers, fruits, roots, and vegetables, on an improved principle; thereby reducing the conſumption of fuel, ſimplifying the mode of management, and rendering more certain the production of fruit and flowers. Dated November 3.

Francis Brewin, of Bermondſey, Surrey, tanner; for a new improved method of tanning. Dated November 3.

John Conrad Becker, of Princes-ſtreet, Soho, Middleſex, muſical inſtrument-maker; for improvements in muſical-inſtruments, chiefly applicable to harps and piano-fortes. Dated November 7.

Antonius Bémetzrieder, of Chelſea, Middleſex, maſter of arts; and Robert Scott, John Scott, and Alexander Scott, of Margaret-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-

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Cavendiſh-ſquare, Middleſex, muſical-inſtrument makers; for a method of making piano-fortes, entirely new, both in principle, conſtruction, and ſhape. Dated November 10.

Archibald Thompſon, of Three-Kings-court, Lombard-ſtreet, in the city of London, engineer; for machinery for the purpoſe of ſpinning rope-yarn or ſail-cloth-yarn, and for laying or making ropes and other cordage. Dated November 10.

Stephen Hooper, of Walworth, in the pariſh of St. Mary, Newington, Surrey, gent.; for machines, or machinery for the purpoſe of cleanſing harbours, rivers, &c. Dated November 10.

William Robinſon, of Eſſex-ſtreet, in the pariſh of St. Clement Danes, Middleſex, peruke-maker; for a method of making perukes and ſcalps. Dated November 10.

John Stevenſon, of Mancheſter, Lancaſhire, tobacconiſt; for a method of ſtoving and drying tobacco, and the preparation of ſnuffs. Dated November 10.

Robert Dickinſon, of Long-Acre, Middleſex, gent.; for improvements in the conſtruction of, and additions to, the ſaddles, harneſs, and other gear, neceſſary or uſeful for the employ of horſes and other animals. Dated November 10.

Iſaac Sandford, late of Hartford, in North America, gent.; but at preſent reſiding in the pariſh of St. Pancras, Middleſex; for a machine for cropping or ſhearing of woollen, cotton, linen, ſilk, and all other cloths made with nap, that require to be cropped or ſheared. Dated November 14.

Cheſter Gould, of Red Lion-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, Middleſex, merchant; for an apparatus or artificial horizon, to be attached to, and uſed with, the quadrant or ſextant, for the purpoſe of taking the altitudes of celeſtial and other objects, either on land or water, without the aſſiſtance of the natural horizon. Dated November 17.

Joſeph Bramah, of Pimlico, Middleſex, engineer; for improvements in the conſtruction of ſteam-engines and boilers, and for the purpoſe of generating ſteam and other purpoſes. Dated November 28.

George Hull, of the Strand, Middleſex, goldſmith; for a method of making elaſtic faſtenings for ſhoes, &c. Dated November 26.

Edward Riley, of the lordſhip of Myton, in the county of the town of Kingſton-upon-Hull, organ-builder, and pianoforte-maker; for moveable keys for piano-fortes, organs, and other inſtruments. Dated November 28.

Naphtaly Hart, of Pimlico, Middleſex, gent.; for an inſtrument or goniometer which will meaſure or lay down angles to minutes, from the ſmalleſt radiuſes to any extent, draw circles to any radius, draw and meaſure all kinds of right-lined figures made uſe of in geometry, trigonometry, and navigation, with an accuracy and diſpatch hitherto not known, which inſtrument he calls the "Hartefian Goniometer," and a clamp applicable thereto, and to other uſeful purpoſes; and alſo a new ſuſpenſor and orbicular caſter, applicable to maritime and other purpoſes. Dated December 3.

James Boaz, manufacturer in Glaſgow; for a new and improved method of communicating thoughts, information, and intelligence, to and from different places, at a diſtance from each other, by means of ſigns,

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ſigns, by lights, and otherwiſe. Dated December 3.

Lawrence Collin, of King-ſtreet, Portman-ſquare, St. Mary-le-bone, Middleſex, and James Butters, of Wigmore-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-ſquare, in the ſame pariſh, turner; for a machine for ſaving perſons, though ignorant of the art of ſwimming, from drowning, which they propoſe to call a "Collinette." Dated December 3.

Charles Grierſon, of New Bond-ſtreet, in the pariſh of St. George, Hanover-ſquare, Middleſex, gun-maker; for a breech and lock for ſingle and double-barrel guns, piſtols, and other fire-arms, on a new and improved principle. Dated December 19

Account of Experiments in cultivating Rice. By the Right Hon. Sir Joſeph Banks, Bart. K.B. and P. R. S. In a Letter to the Preſident of the Board of Agriculture. From the Communications to the Board of Agriculture.

April 15, 1799.

AS I conceive the introduction of new eſculent vegetables, a matter of material importance to the agricultural intereſts of this country, and that even an unſucceſsful experiment on this ſubject may be, though not perhaps fitting for publication, a proper document to be lodged in the archives of the board of agriculture, I take the liberty of ſubmitting the following remarks to your lordſhip's better judgement.

The dry or mountain rice, which I received laſt year from the board of agriculture, for trial, had been procured at ſome conſiderable expenſe by ſir John Murray, from the neighbourhood of Serinagur, a city in India, ſituated at the foot of mount Imaus, where ſnow lies till late in the ſpring; and where the climate has been ſuppoſed to reſemble that of England, ſufficiently to make it probable, that the vegetable productions of the one, would equally ſucceed in the other country; I conſider it as a duty owing to the patriotic exertions of ſir John, to give your lordſhip and the board, ſome account of the reſult of the trial of it, made by me at Spring-Grove, near Hounſlow, in Middleſex.

It was not till near the end of May, when the ſamples, being of ſix ſorts, were delivered out by the board, and they were ſown immediately, on the 21ſt day of that month, on ſix ſmall beds in a garden, under the ſhelter of a pale, in a ſouth expoſure.

The grains were ſown very thin, in order that the progreſs of their vegetation might be better noted; in a very few days they appeared above ground. The ſeaſon being warm, with a moderate ſupply of rain, it was ſeldom neceſſary to water them; however, when they appeared to ſlap, which generally happened after three or four dry days had taken place, they were well ſprinkled with a watering pot.

In leſs than a month they had grown ſeveral inches high; each ſort had acquired an appearance very different from the reſt; ſome were pale green, and had broader blades; ſome were deeper coloured, and narrower in the blade; and one ſort had a brown hue on the whole plant; and the baſes of the leaves in this kind were nearly black.

During the month of Auguſt, they tillowed much more than I have obſerved

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ſerved any other corn to do; ſo much ſo, that although they had been ſown very thin, they became a denſe compact bed of plants; the blades in ſome of the kinds ſtanding as cloſe or cloſer to each other, than the thickeſt ſown barley ever does.

At the cloſe of the month, the blades were from a foot to eighteen inches high; the plants continued to tillow, each root having by this time produced from ten to twenty offsets, but no ſympton of a riſing ſtem was at all obſervable.

In the middle of September, they had ſtill continued to tillow, and the blades to lengthen, ſo that ſome of them were at leaſt two feet long. As the froſts of the autumn were nearly now approaching, it became an object of ſome importance to examine the ſtate in which the plants really were, in order to aſcertain the probability of their having produced ears, or poſſibly of their having ripened corn, if they had been ſown a month or two earlier. The moſt careful inſpection was therefore made by diſſection, but no traces could be found of the rudiment of a joint beginning to form itſelf on the crown of the root, or of the embrio of the glumes of the ear, which in all kinds of corn are firſt diſcernible in that part.

About this period I was taken ill, and obliged to deſiſt from obſerving their future progreſs; but a froſt ſoon after followed, which cut the blade down to the earth, and at once deſtroyed all hopes of theſe kinds of rice producing grain in our climate: the quantity of the blade was however ſo uncommonly great, that it is not impoſſible it might be advantageous to ſow it as food for cattle, for a very large proportion of ſtock might certainly be maintained upon an acre of it

Before the froſt ſet in, I had ordered a tuft of each kind of the rice to be tranſplanted into a pot, and placed in a hot-houſe, in order, if poſſible, to aſcertain the natural period of this grain; whether, like winter corn, it requires eight or nine months to come to perfection, or, like our Lent corn, arrives at the ſame period in five or ſix; but all of theſe died, notwithſtanding great attention was paid to them: ſome ſeed however, which I had given to Mr. Lambert, ſucceeded better; it was ſown in his hot-houſe in the month of June, where it throve well, but did not produce ears till near Chriſtmas, a period of ſeven months; from whence as it is not probable the grain would have ripened in leſs than two months from the time when the ear appeared, it is eaſy to deduce, that in the neighbourhood of Serinagur, theſe kinds of rice are either ſown as winter corn, or the climate there, is far better ſuited to promote the quick progreſs of vegetation, than ours is. It was, when it produced ears, about three feet and a half high, and ſome of the ſtems had five joints, including the radical one: had it been in a more ſuitable climate, it would certainly have grown taller, for the flowers dropped off without producing ſeed.

In the courſe of this ſpring I have forwarded a few ſeeds, which were left from ſir John Murray's importation, to Portugal; if they ſucceed, I ſhall probably hear of it; and in that caſe, if your lordſhip feels intereſted in the ſubject, I ſhall certainly do myſelf the honour of communicating ſuch information concerning them, as I am able to obtain.

Account

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Account of a new Eudiometer. By Mr. Davy. From the Journals of the Royal Institution of Great Britain.

THE dependance of the health and existence of animals upon a peculiar state of the atmosphere, and the relations of this state to processes connected with the most essential wants of life, have given interest and importance to inquiries concerning the composition and properties of atmospheric air.

This elastic fluid has been long known to consist chiefly of oxygen and nitrogen, mingled together, or in a state of loose combination, and holding in solution water.

A variety of processes have been instituted with the view of determining the relative proportions of the two gases, but most of them have involved sources of inaccuracy; and lately all, except two (the slow combustion of phosphorus, and the action of liquid sulphurets), have been generally abandoned.

Both phosphorus and solution of sulphuret of potash absorb the whole of the oxygen of atmospheric air at common temperatures, and they do not materially alter the volume, or the properties of the residual nitrogen; but their operation is extremely slow; and in many cases it is difficult to ascertain the period at which the experiment is completed.

I have lately employed as an eudiometrical substance the solution of green muriate, or sulphate, of iron, impregnated with nitrous gas; and I have found that it is in some respects superior to many of the bodies heretofore used, as it rapidly condenses oxygen without acting upon nitrogen; and requires for its application only a very simple and a very portable apparatus.

This fluid is made by transmitting nitrous gas through green muriate, or sulphate, of iron, dissolved to saturation in water.* As the gas is absorbed, the solution becomes of a deep olive brown, and when the impregnation is completed it appears opaque, and almost black. The process is apparently owing to a simple elective attraction; in no case is the gas decomposed; and under the exhausted receiver it assumes its elastic form, leaving the fluid with which it was combined unaltered in its properties.

The instruments necessary for ascertaining the composition of the atmosphere, by means of impregnated solutions, consist simply of a small graduated tube, having its capacity divided into one hundred parts, and greatest at the open end; and of a vessel for containing the fluid.

The tube, after been filled with the air to be examined, is introduced into the solution; and, that the action may be more rapid, gently moved from a perpendicular towards a horizontal position. Under these circumstances the air is rapidly diminished; and, in consequence of the dark colour of the fluid, it is easy to discover the quantity of absorption, in a few minutes the experiment is completed, and the whole of the oxygen condensed by the nitrous gas in the solution in the form of nitrous acid.

In all eudiometrical processes with impregnated solutions, the period at which the diminution is at a

* Dr. Priestley first observed this process: for a particular account of it see Researches, Chemical and Philosophical, p. 152, Johnson.

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ſtand muſt be accurately obſerved; for, ſhortly after this period, the volume of the reſidual gas begins to be a little increaſed, and after ſome hours it will often fill a ſpace greater by ſeveral of the hundred parts on the ſcale of the tube, than that which it occupied at the maximum of abſorption.

This circumſtance depends upon the ſlow decompoſition of the nitrous acid (formed during the experiment) by the green oxide of iron, and the conſequent production of a ſmall quantity of aeriform fluid (chiefly nitrous gas); * which, having no affinity for the red muriate, or ſulphate, of iron produced, is gradually evolved, and mingled with the reſidual nitrogen.

The impregnated ſolution with green muriate is more rapid in its operation than the ſolution with green ſulphate. In caſes when theſe ſalts cannot be obtained in a ſtate of abſolute purity, the common or mixed ſulphate of iron may be employed. One cubic inch of moderately ſtrong impregnated ſolution is capable of abſorbing five or ſix cubic inches of oxygen, in common proceſſes; but the ſame quantity muſt never be employed for more than one experiment.

A number of comparative experiments, made on the conſtitution of the atmoſphere at the Hot-wells, Briſtol, in July, Auguſt, and September, 1800, with phoſphorus, ſulphurets of alkalies, and impregnated ſolution, demonſtrated the accuracy of the proceſſes in which the laſt ſubſtance was properly employed. The diminutions given by the ſulphurets were indeed always greater by a minute quantity than thoſe produced by phoſphorus and impregnated ſolutions: but the reaſon of this will be obvious to thoſe who have ſtudied the ſubject of eudiometry. In no inſtance was it found that 100 parts in volume of air contained more than 21 of oxygen; and the variations connected with different winds, and different ſtates of temperature, moiſture, &c. were too ſmall, and too often related to accidental circumſtances, to be accurately noticed.

In analyſing the atmoſphere in different places, by means of impregnated ſolutions, I have never been able to aſcertain any notable difference in the proportions of its conſtituent parts. Air, collected on the ſea, at the mouth of the Severn, on October the 3d, 1800, which muſt have paſſed over much of the Atlantic, as the wind was blowing ſtrong from the weſt, was found to contain 21 per cent. of oxygen in volume, and this was nearly the proportion in air ſent from the coaſt of Guinea, to Dr. Beddoes, by two ſurgeons of Liverpool.

If we compare theſe reſults with the reſults gained more than twenty years ago, by Mr. Cavendiſh, from experiments on the compoſition of atmoſpherical air, made at London and Kenſington; conſidering, at the ſame time, the reſearches of Berthollet in Egypt and at Paris, and thoſe of Mariti in Spain, we ſhall find ſtrong reaſons for concluding, that the atmoſphere, in all places expo-

* The decompoſition of nitrous acid by ſolutions containing oxide of iron, at its minimum of oxidation, is a very complex proceſs. The green oxide, during its converſion into red oxide, not only decompoſes the acid, but likewiſe acts upon the water of the ſolution; and ammoniac is ſometimes formed, and ſmall portions of nitrous oxide and nitrogen evolved with the nitrous gas.

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ſed to the influence of the winds, contains very nearly the ſame proportions of oxygen and nitrogen: a circumſtance of great importance; for, by teaching us that the different degrees of ſalubrity of air do not depend upon differences in the quantities of its principal conſtituent parts, it ought to induce us to inſtitute reſearches concerning the different ſubſtances capable of being diſſolved or ſuſpended in air, which are noxious to the human conſtitution; particularly as an accurate knowledge of their nature and properties would probably enable us, in a great meaſure, to guard againſt, or deſtroy, their baneful effects.

Account of a Method of generating Yeaſt. By the Rev. William Maſon, of Aſhton, near Rotherham; communicated in Letters to the Secretary of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; and alſo of ſome Experiments on this Subject by a Committee of Chemiſtry. From the Tranſactions of the Society. A Bounty of Twenty Pounds was given to his Servant Joſeph Senior, to whom the Diſcovery was firſt owing.

MY ſervant who brews for me having impregnated wort with fixed air, or rather a decoction of malt in water, according to Dr. Henry's ingenious method, mentioned in the Memoirs of the Philoſophical Society of Mancheſter, and by the yeaſt thereby obtained produced good bread. This led him, unknown to me, to try whether the experiment would not ſucceed full as well without fixed air; which he found it did. He accordingly brought me a ſmall veſſel with a full head of yeaſt upon it, aſſuring me, with ſome degree of exultation, that neither oil of vitriol with chalk, nor any portion of old yeaſt, had been employed on the occaſion. This greatly ſurpriſed me; and I then deſired he would proceed with the experiment in his own way, and endeavour to increaſe the quantity already made, by what additional decoction of malt and water he might think proper; inſiſting only that nothing but malt, water, and heat, ſhould be employed for the purpoſe. He did ſo, and in a few days increaſed the original quantity till it became ſufficient to work a hogſhead of ſmall-beer, which produced ten pounds weight of perfect yeaſt; and this, being ſoon after put on a vat for a hogſhead of ale, was found to be augmented to forty-two pounds.

The diſcovery therefore is ſimply this: "that yeaſt is not (as has, I believe, been hitherto thought) ſome peculiar and unknown ſubſtance, neceſſary to be added to wort in order to put it into a fermenting ſtate; but that malt boiled in water will generate it (as the chemiſts ſay) *per ſe*, if the following circumſtances be attended to.

1ſt, That the proceſs be begun with a ſmall quantity of the decoction.

2dly, That it be kept in an equal degree of heat. And,

3dly, That, when the fermentation is begun, it ſhould be aſſiſted and augmented with freſh decoctions of the ſame liquor."

The proportions and method which my ſervant has found generally to ſucceed, I will now give you, as taken from his own words, in the form of a recipe.

"Procure

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Procure three earthen or wooden veſſels of different ſizes and apertures, one capable of holding two quarts, the other three or four, and the third five or ſix: boil a quarter of a peck of malt for about eight or ten minutes in three pints of water; and when a quart is poured off from the grains, let it ſtand in a cool place, till not quite cold, but retaining that degree of heat which the brewers uſually find to be proper when they begin to work their liquor. Then remove the veſſel into ſome warm ſituation near a fire, where the thermometer ſtands between 70 and 80 degrees (Fahrenheit), and there let it remain till the fermentation begins, which will be plainly perceived within thirty hours; add then two quarts more of a like decoction of malt, when cool, as the firſt was; and mix the whole in the larger-ſized veſſel, and ſtir it well in, which muſt be repeated in the uſual way, as it riſes in a common vat: then add a ſtill greater quantity of the ſame decoction, to be worked in the largeſt veſſel, which will produce yeaſt enough for a brewing of forty gallons.

As I cannot conveniently ſend my ſervant to town on this occaſion to produce the yeaſt himſelf, and have alſo ſome doubt whether the ſimplicity of the proceſs will not make it diſregarded, I have thought it beſt to communicate the diſcovery previouſly to you, who, as my friend told me, appeared to be intereſted in its ſucceſs; hoping you may be induced to try ſo eaſy an experiment, and to acquaint me with the reſult of it, before you communicate it to the ſociety. With my brewer it has never failed, except when the failure was to be accounted for from an inequality of temperature of the air, where the experiments were made: it ſeems therefore to me, that in the hands of a good practical brewer, accommodated with a place where his little vat will ſtand in a conſtant degree of proper heat, it will generally ſucceed, eſpecially in the brewing ſeaſons.

P. S. It may be proper to add, that my ſervant is of opinion, that a proper quantity of hops boiled in the liquor makes the fermentation proceed better; but as it may, and has actually ſucceeded, without ſuch addition, I would willingly with them to be omitted, to prevent the bread baked with it from taſting bitter. Experience only can decide this; and farther experience is ſtill wanted, to make a perfect recipe for the operation.

In a ſecond letter Mr. Maſon ſays, that "yeaſt, uſed for the purpoſe of brewing malt liquor, and in making bread, is a viſcid frothy ſubſtance, which ariſes on the ſurface of a ſimple decoction of malt in water, when in a ſtate of fermentation; and which ſubſtance, after it has been ſo generated, may, by additional quantities of the ſame liquor, gradually ſupplied, be increaſed *ad infinitum*." This definition, duly attended to, will put the committee on their guard in adjudging the premium to any perſon who, by adding any known or unknown article to wort, offers it as a ſubſtitute for old yeaſt taken from a former brewing, becauſe they will be taught that new original yeaſt may be obtained from wort itſelf without any ſuch ſubſtitute.

With reſpect to the doubt you expreſſed in your obliging anſwer to my laſt, I can with truth aſſure, that in all the primary decoctions made hitherto for the purpoſe, coarſe earthen

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earthen and glazed pots have been uſed, till a quantity of yeaſt ſufficient to work a brewing of beer was produced: after which, the proceſs was carried on in a large wooden vat; and therefore, when I uſed in my laſt the epithet wooden as well as earthen, it was merely becauſe I thought the former kind of veſſels leſs liable to accidents.

Certain it is, that in two experiments lately made here, in York, one by myſelf, the other by my friend Dr. Burgh, a gentleman much more converſant in chemical matters than myſelf, new earthen veſſels bought out of the ſhops were employed.

He produced excellent bread from the yeaſt which his decoction had generated, without any addition of hops: a ſmall quantity of hops were boiled in mine; which, without much affecting the taſte of the bread baked with it, left about four gallons of table beer, now in a ſmall cask; which, though not fine, from having been brewed little more than a fortnight, is greatly preferable to the wretched bitter beverage ſold by our common brewers, from whoſe vats a yeaſt is produced, equally unpalatable for the purpoſe of baking, and perhaps equally unwholeſome both for baking and brewing.

I am much obliged to you for the attention which you promiſe to pay to the experiment; but I cannot help wiſhing that you had at your elbow one of our old houſewives in one of our obſcure Yorkſhire dales, uſed, as they are, to very ſmall brewings, who, after two or three little blunders, would ſoon bring it to a certainty.

In another letter Mr. Maſon ſays, I write to inform you of the reſult of ſome more experiments which have been made here, under my direction, relative to yeaſt; and the rather, becauſe they were made by means of a very ſimple apparatus, which I think will be found very convenient on ſhip-board, and alſo in cottages, &c. It is merely a wooden box, of about twelve or fourteen inches ſquare, open on one ſide, in which a veſſel containing the wort is placed; and then the box is ſet with the open ſide cloſe to a wall, heated by a fire on the other ſide, when the thermometer indicates the wall to be about 80°; ſo that I imagine the back of a chimney in a ſhip, or behind an oven or kitchen fire in a cottage, would be found very convenient for the proceſs; as the veſſel might be there ſurrounded with a ſmall atmoſphere of air, ſufficiently warm at th firſt, and capable of being continued at the ſame equable temperature for a ſufficient time.

A box of this kind, in which the following experiments were made, was placed on a dreſſer in my kitchen, more than eighteen feet from the kitchen fire, but againſt a thin wall, which divides the kitchen from the ſervants hall, juſt behind the fire-place of that room; and the open ſide of the box turned to the heated wall, the veſſels themſelves uncovered. If you recollect the trouble you ſo obligingly took in heating your office, you will think this method, ſince diſcovered, of performing the ſame experiment, of conſiderable utility.

Experiment I. Three veſſels were ſet at the ſame time in the warm box, containing a quart of liquor each, and of equal ſtrength with reſpect to malt: one was a decoction without hops, another with hops, the other a pure infuſion of malt: in about twenty-four hours the hopped decoc-

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tion produced a fine head of yeaſt; the other decoction fermented as well, but was twenty-four hours later; the ſimple infuſion was near thirty-ſix hours later, and the yeaſt appeared dark and ill-coloured, ſo that my houſekeeper thought it ſpoiled; but this bad appearance was merely owing to its not having been boiled and cleared, for it made very light breakfaſt rolls.

This experiment, you will perceive, was made to try whether hops (as my ſervant imagined) were neceſſary; and it certainly proves that they accelerate the fermentation; but it proves alſo, that neither hops nor boiling are eſſential to the proceſs.

Experiment II. Four veſſels from a common brewing of ale were placed in a box of longer dimenſions; one contained two quarts; a ſecond, one; a third, a pint; a fourth, half a pint: they all ſhewed ſigns of fermentation at the ſame time, viz. in about twenty-four hours; but that in the mug or pot holding a pint appeared the ſtrongeſt, which my ſervant thought was owing to the ſmaller diameter of the veſſel, which was ſmaller in proportion to the half-pint; but as it ſtood more centrally to the heat of the fire behind, I am perſuaded the exceſs of fermentation proceeded from that cauſe. This proves that the quantity you begin the proceſs with is not very material: though two quarts ſeem to be moſt convenient for the purpoſe of baking.

Experiment III. was inſtituted merely to find whether an addition of ſugar would accelerate the fermentation; for which purpoſe, two quarts of hopped liquor were tried in ſeparate veſſels, a quart in each: and the reſult was, that the decoction, in which two large ſpoonfuls of coarſe ſugar were ſtirred in, did not ferment in the leaſt, though continued in the warm box five days and nights; the other fermented in about thirty-ſix hours. The reaſon of this later fermentation, than of that in the former experiments, was, that the liquor uſed was from a brewing of ſmall-beer. Hence we may conclude, that a decoction of the ſtrength of ale, if not of ſtrong-beer, is the beſt to begin with.

Account of Experiments on the Generation of Yeaſt, made under the Inſpection of the Committee of Chemiſtry of the Society.

Four quarts of ground malt were put into a new ſtone-ware veſſel, and maſhed, with about an equal quantity of hot water, in the uſual manner for brewing.

When the maſh had ſtood about an hour, the wort was drawn off, and three quarts of boiling water poured on the grains: when this had ſtood a due time, the liquor was ſuffered to run off, and the whole liquor boiled half an hour; being then ſet to cool, it was poured clear from the ſediment, and then put in a room where the heat was regularly kept up to ſummer heat, or near 80° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. It ſtood in this degree of heat till ſome ſigns of fermentation appeared on the ſurface; which came on in about three days.

Another brewing was then made as above deſcribed; and, when of a due heat, ſtirred into the former liquor. In about twenty-four hours ſome yeaſt appeared, and another brewing was then made; and, when of a due heat, mixed with the two former ones, and well beat in, the heat

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heat being ſtill kept up to the degree above mentioned: in about two days more, five ounces of excellent yeaſt were collected from the ſurface of the liquor.

Some of this yeaſt being mixed with a due proportion of flour, water, and ſalt, anſwered all the purpoſes intended for bread; and might certainly have been equally well applied to brewing, in the common method. In fine, being pure and good yeaſt, it will anſwer all the intentions of that uſeful article.

Obſervations relative to the Means of increaſing the Quantities of Heat obtained in the Combuſtion of Fuel. By Count Rumford. From the Journals of the Royal Inſtitution of Great Britain.

IT is a fact which has been long known, that clays, and ſeveral other incombuſtible ſubſtances, when mixed with ſea coal, in certain proportions, cauſe the coal to give out more heat in its combuſtion than it can be made to produce when it is burnt pure or unmixed; but the cauſe of this increaſe of heat does not appear to have been yet inveſtigated with that attention which ſo extraordinary and important a circumſtance ſeems to demand.

Daily experience teaches us that all bodies,—thoſe which are incombuſtible,—as well as thoſe which are combuſtible, and actually burning,—throw off in all directions heat,—or rather calorific (heat-making) rays, which generate heat wherever they are ſtopped, or abſorbed;—but common obſervation was hardly ſufficient to ſhow any perceptible difference between the quantities of calorific rays thrown off by different bodies, when heated to the ſame temperature, or expoſed in the ſame fire; although the quantities ſo thrown off might be, and probably are, very different.

It has lately been aſcertained, that when the ſides and back of an open chimney fire-place, in which coals are burned, are compoſed of fire-bricks, and heated red-hot, they throw off into the room incomparably more heat than all the coals that could poſſibly be put into the grate, even ſuppoſing them to burn with the greateſt poſſible degree of brightneſs. Hence it appears that a red-hot burning coal does not ſend off near ſo many caloriſic rays as a piece of red hot brick or ſtone, of the ſame form and dimenſions; and this intereſting diſcovery will enable us to make very important improvements in the conſtruction of our fire-places, and alſo in the management of our fires.

The fuel inſtead of being employed to heat the room directly, or by the direct rays from the fire, ſhould be ſo diſpoſed, or placed, as to heat the back and ſides of the grate; which muſt always be conſtructed of fire-brick or fire-ſtone, and never of iron, or of any other metal. Few coals, therefore, when properly placed, make a much better fire than a larger quantity; and ſhallow grates, when they are conſtructed of proper materials, throw more heat into a room, and with a much leſs conſumption of fuel, than deep grates; for a large maſs of coals in the grate arreſts the rays which proceed from the back and ſides of the grate, and prevents their coming into the room; or, as fires are generally managed, it prevents the back and ſides of the grate from ever being ſufficiently heated to aſſiſt much in heating the

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room, even though they be conſtructed of good materials, and large quantities of coals be conſumed in them.

It is poſſible, however, by a ſimple contrivance, to make a good and an economical fire in almoſt any grate, though it would always be adviſable to conſtruct fire-places on good principles, or to improve them by judicious alterations, rather than to depend on the uſe of additional inventions for correcting their defects.

To make a good fire in a bad grate, the bottom of the grate muſt be firſt covered with a ſingle layer of balls, made of good fire-bricks, or artificial fire-ſtone, well burnt, each ball being perfectly globular, and about $2\frac{1}{2}$ or $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter. On this layer of balls the fire is to be kindled, and, in filling the grate, more balls are to be added with the coals that are laid on; care muſt, however, be taken in this operation to mix the coals and the balls well together, otherwiſe, if a number of the balls ſhould get together in a heap, they will cool, not being kept red-hot by the combuſtion of the ſurrounding fuel, and the fire will appear dull in that part; but if no more than a due proportion of the balls are uſed, and if they are properly mixed with the coals, they will all, except it be thoſe perhaps at the bottom of the grate, become red-hot, and the fire will not only be very beautiful, but it will ſend off a vaſt quantity of radiant heat into the room; and will continue to give out heat for a great length of time. It is the opinion of ſeveral perſons who have for a conſiderable time practiſed this method of making their fires, that more than one-third of the fuel uſually conſumed may be ſaved by this ſimple contrivance. It is very probable that, with careful and judicious management, the ſaving would amount to one-half, or fifty per cent.

As theſe balls, made in moulds, and burnt in a kiln, would coſt very little, and as a ſet of them would laſt a long time,—probably ſeveral years,—the ſaving of expenſe in heating rooms by chimney fires, with bad grates, in this way, is obvious; but ſtill it ſhould be remembered, that a ſaving quite as great may be made by altering the grate, and making it a good fire-place.

In uſing theſe balls, care muſt be taken to prevent their accumulating at the bottom of the grate: as the coals go on to conſume, the balls mixed with them will naturally ſettle down towards the bottom of the grate, and the tongs muſt be uſed occaſionally to lift them up; and, as the fire grows low, it will be proper to remove a part of them, and not to replace them in the grate till more coals are introduced:—a little experience will ſhow how a fire made in this manner can be managed to the greateſt advantage, and with the leaſt trouble.

Balls, made of pieces of any kind of well-burnt hard brick, though not equally durable with fire-brick, will anſwer very well, provided they be made perfectly round; but if they are not quite globular their flat ſides will get together, and, by obſtructing the free paſſage of the air amongſt the coals, will prevent the fire from burning clear and bright.

The beſt compoſition for making theſe balls, when they are formed in moulds, and afterwards dried and burned in a kiln, is pounded crucibles mixed up with moiſtened Stirbridge

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Sturbridge clay; but good balls may be made with any very hard burnt common bricks, reduced to a coarse powder, and mixed with Sturbridge clay, or even with common clay. The balls should always be made so large as not to pass through between the front bars of a grate.

These balls have one advantage, which is peculiar to them, and which might perhaps recommend the use of them to the curious, even in fire-places constructed on the best principles; they cause the cinders to be consumed almost entirely; and even the very ashes may be burnt, or made to disappear, if care be taken to throw them repeatedly upon the fire when it burns with an intense heat. It is not difficult to account for this effect in a satisfactory manner; and in accounting for it we shall explain a circumstance on which it is probable that the great increase of the heat of an open fire, where these balls are used, may, in some measure, depend. The small particles of coal, and of cinder which, in a common fire, fall through the bottom of the grate, and escape combustion when these balls are used can hardly fail to fall and lodge on some of them; and, as they are intensely hot, these small bodies, which alight upon them in their fall, are soon heated red-hot, and disposed to take fire and burn; and as fresh air from below the grate is continually making its way upwards amongst the balls, every circumstance is highly favourable to the rapid and complete combustion of these small inflammable bodies. But if these small pieces of coal and cinder should, in their fall, happen to light upon the metallic bars, which form the bottom of the grate, as these bars are conductors of heat, and, on account of that circumstance, as well as of their situation,—below the fire,—never can be made very hot,—any small particle of fuel that happens to come into contact with them, not only cannot take fire, but would cease to burn should it arrive in a state of actual combustion.

These facts are very important, and well deserving of the attention of those who may derive advantage from the improvement of fire-places, and the economy of fuel.

There are some circumstances which strongly indicate that an admixture of incombustible bodies with fuel, and especially with coal, cause an increase of the heat, even when the fuel is burnt in a closed fire-place. No fire-place can well be contrived more completely closed than those of the iron stoves in common use in the Netherlands; but, in these stoves,—which are heated by coal fires,—a large proportion of wet clay is always coarsely mixed with the coals before they are introduced into the fire-place. If this practice had not been found to be useful, it would certainly never have obtained generally; nor would it have been continued, as it has been, for more than two hundred years.

The combination of different substances,—combustible and incombustible,—to form, artificially, various kinds of cheap and pleasant fuel, particularly adapted for the different processes in which the fuel is employed, is a subject well worthy the attention of enterprising and ingenious men. How much excellent fuel, for instance, might be made with proper additions, and proper management, of the mountains of refuse coal-dust that lie useless at the mouths of coal pits; and how much

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would it contribute to cleanlineſs, and elegance if the uſe of improved coke, or of hard and light fire-balls, could be generally introduced in our houſes and kitchens, inſtead of crude, black, powdery, dirty ſea-coal.—Of the great economy that would reſult from ſuch a change there cannot be the ſmalleſt doubt.

It is a melancholy truth, but, at the ſame time, a moſt indiſputable fact, that, while the induſtry and ingenuity of millions are employed, with unceaſing activity, in inventing, improving, and varying thoſe ſuperfluities which wealth and luxury introduce into ſociety, no attention whatever is paid to the improvement of thoſe common neceſſaries of life on which the ſubſiſtence of all, and the comforts and enjoyments of the great majority of mankind, abſolutely depend.

Much will be done for the benefit of ſociety, if means can be deviſed to call the attention of the active and benevolent to this long-neglected, but moſt intereſting ſubject.

Experiments upon Magnetiſm. By the Rev. James Maddiſon, Preſident of William and Mary College. From the Tranſactions of the American Philoſophical Society.

IN the review of my philoſophical courſe for this year, I have been led to make ſome experiments upon magnetiſm, which appeared to fall within the views of the American Philoſophical Society. It is for this reaſon that I have taken the liberty of communicating them to you.

Few ſubjects in natural philoſophy are, in reality, more intereſting to mankind than magnetiſm; and yet the inviſibility of the agent, and the conſequent difficulty of purſuing a cauſe, which ſeems to be ſubjected to none of our ſenſes, has greatly reſtricted the progreſs of knowledge in this branch of phyſics. Some phænomena, which have long attracted the attention of the philoſopher, and excited the admiration of the vulgar, have received different ſolutions, grounded upon as many different hypotheſes. No method appears to have been adopted to ſhew the fallacy of the one, or the verity of the other. They ſtill remained as hypotheſes. The following experiments, ſimple as they are, give a ſolution, which carries with it ocular demonſtration; and, as the juſt explication of every fact is a real advance in philoſophy, I truſt they will not be thought unworthy of attention.

The phænomena to which I allude are thoſe, which magnets, placed upon paper, exhibit with filings of iron, when they are ſprinkled about them. Many ingenious men have ſuppoſed, that the arrangement of the filings clearly indicated the paſſage of a magnetic fluid or effluvia, in curved lines, from one pole to another of a different denomination; and hence have ſought for the ſolution of other phænomena upon a much more extended ſcale. Others, and particularly Cavallo, in his uſeful treatiſe on magnetiſm, from the action of the magnet upon the filings, rendering each particle itſelf a magnet. The proper ſolution ſprings from the following experiments:

Experiment I. Place an artificial magnet, of the uſual oblong form, and of ſufficient ſtrength, upon a diſh; let the ends be two or more inches diſtance from the edge or rim; cover the magnet with water about one-

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one-tenth of an inch. Then ſprinkle, or ſift the filings of iron through gauze, ſo that they may fall gently near the equator of the magnet. You will immediately ſee the filings to divide; one part moving with an accelerated velocity to the north pole, the other part to the ſouth pole, each approaching as near to its reſpective pole as the interpoſing fluid will permit; each turning and preſenting a diſſimilar pole to that which firſt put the particle in motion. As other particles ſucceed in their turn, the ſame effects take place; each endeavours to approach as near to its pole, as its centre, as poſſible; but the particles already arrived preventing an approach within the limits thus previouſly occupied, the whole are neceſſarily arranged in the form of concentric circles. Particles of water in forming drops, or of mercury in forming globules, obey nearly the ſame law.

Thus doth this experiment unequivocally demonſtrate, from the motions of the floating particles, that attraction is the ſole cauſe of this phænomenon, and that this force is equally exerted by each pole. It ſhews, at the ſame time, that each of the filings, even the ſmalleſt, becomes itſelf a magnet ſo ſoon as it arrives within a ſhort diſtance of its attracting pole. This is particularly evinced by thoſe particles which are firſt put in motion, and which occupy the neareſt ſtations. For, immediately upon their arrival at a certain diſtance, they turn round, and preſent to the magnet their oppoſite extremity.

Experiment II. Place two diſſimilar ends of magnets about an inch apart, in a large diſh; let them be juſt covered with water, ſift the filings between the ends. The particles of iron are immediately attracted by the neareſt pole; they move quickly in oppoſite directions, occupy the neareſt ſtation they can, become themſelves magnetic, and preſent to each other diſſimilar poles. The particles attracted by the poles of the magnet thus mutually attract each other. Between the poles of the large magnets, the filings are arranged in ſtraight lines; becauſe there they tend directly to the attracting points; the more removed, the more curvilineal their poſition; becauſe each particle making the ſame effort to occupy the neareſt ſtation to the centre of attraction, they are all neceſſarily forced into a poſition correſponding with that effort.

Experiment III. Place ſimilar ends of two magnets, as the diſſimilar were ſituated in the laſt experiment, and ſift the filings between them. Here alſo you ſee them to be acted upon by attraction as before; they move to the neareſt pole, become magnetic, and preſent to each other ſimilar poles; that is, ſuppoſing the north poles of two magnets to be oppoſed, all thoſe filings which are attracted by the north pole of one of the magnets preſent a north pole to the north pole of all thoſe attracted by the other magnet; they repel each other, of conſequence; a vacuity is obſerved between the reſpective parcels of filings; whilſt the appearance of reverted curves is exhibited, on account of the repulſion which their ſimilar poles exert upon each other.

Thus, beſides the proof which theſe experiments afford, that the attractive force of the magnets, at either pole, is the real cauſe of the phænomena which the filings exhibit, they prove alſo, in the moſt

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satisfactory manner, that the action of the magnet upon the filings, when they approach within a certain distance, renders them magnetic, and hence produces the effects mentioned in the two last experiments. But, in every instance, attraction first operates. Similar poles, whilst they are repulsive of each other, are still attractive of all other substances upon which the magnet acts. The same body, at the same time, appears to exert two opposite powers.

The cause of magnetic attraction and repulsion as well of all other attractions or repulsions, lies still hid in the recesses of nature; but the manner, in which these forces produce certain phænomena, is no longer concealed from us.

These experiments may be agreeably varied by placing three or four magnets upon each other, then covering them only partially, and sprinkling the filings on each side of them.

In every magnet there is at least one line, called the equator, where the attractive power vanishes: from this line, towards either pole, it gradually increases, and hence those filings which are near to the sides of the magnet will incline towards them, forming angles, which appear to be such as the revolution of the two forces, one lateral, the other polar, would necessarily produce.

Perhaps this method of making experiments, by substances floating in water, and thus subjected in all their motions to our examination, may lead to more important discoveries. The rates in which the magnetic attractive force decreases, at different distances, may, I think, be collected from noting the velocity with which the floating bodies move, at different distances from the poles, or the spaces, which they pass over in equal times. Nothing obstructs an accurate solution of this problem but the difficulty of obtaining measurements of sufficiently small intervals of time. If the experiment were made upon a large scale, the difficulty might be removed. The remarkable acceleration which is observable, when the filings come near to their attracting point, seems to satisfy the eye, that the attraction increases in a greater ratio than according to any law yet assigned.

One magnet acts upon another, at a considerable distance, either by repulsion or attraction. Will not these experiments lead to a rational conjecture, that in every instance the action is communicated by intervening magnetic substances? It acts through atmospheric air. But this air may, from its constituent principles, and it is said does, contain iron. The small particles floating in the atmosphere may be acted upon like those floating upon water. The tenuity of the particles will only render the action more sensible. Each may become a magnet, and thus, by the action of all the intervening affected particles, the action of one magnet may be communicated to the poles of another distant magnet.

I have made an experiment, in order to ascertain whether a magnet could exert its power in a Torricellian vacuum. A small quantity of filings was poured into a glass tube, of sufficient length; it was then filled with mercury, and inverted in the same fluid; the filings floated on the surface of the mercury in the upper end. The result was, that the action of the magnet upon the filings,

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lings, at equal diſtances, was ſenſibly leſs than when the tube was full of atmoſpheric air. The want of a tube of ſufficient diameter prevented me from making the experiment in ſo ſatisfactory a manner as I wiſhed. It appears, however, worthy of being repeated by thoſe who may poſſeſs the neceſſary means. If the magnetic power ſhould be obſerved in ſuch a vacuum, then the above conjecture will merit and receive the fate which has generally attended all reaſoning in phyſics not founded on accurate experiment.

Experiment in making Hay, by Mr. Arthur Young. From the Annals of Agriculture.

AFTER a ſeries of warm and beautiful weather in June 1801, a violent rain fell on the 30th. On going to my farm, I found my bailiff had loſt that ſeaſon for hay, in common with all his neighbours, and had begun to mow but the day before the rain. At vol. XXVIII. p. 543, of the 'Annals,' there is an account, by Mr. Barclay, of a new mode of making hay, that of mowing only when the graſs is quite dry, and cocking it immediately: but that ſyſtem I had before found much diſapproved by the workmen, and with ſome reaſon—graſs never mows ſo well as when wet, and if very dry, will not cut ſo cloſe as it ought to be mown. I therefore, on this occaſion, tried the experiment of making the hay by a ſyſtem of cocking, but without reſtraining the ſcythes on account of rain. From July firſt to the eighteenth, no day paſſed without rain; there was, however, time enough dry to form the ſwaths ſoon after mowing into ſmall graſs cocks, which were left two days, turned and ſhaked up a third, put three together the fifth, turning theſe and ſhaking up the ſeventh, again the tenth; the fourteenth day opened the cocks for an hour and put them in rows, and then cocked them in larger cocks.

This was the ſucceſſion of the work; and on the ſixteenth day from mowing it had taken no hurt, though rain had fallen every day, and heavily in ſome. Of courſe the times varied in different fields, and in parts of the ſame field; but this was the mode purſued with the whole. On St. Swithin's day, the fifteenth, it rained moſt heavily, and again on the ſixteenth and ſeventeenth: but the bailiff on the ſeventeenth, there being an hour or two of bright weather, broke and laid into beds about three acres, but was beat out by rain, and the hay left expoſed. It rained on the eighteenth, but fine weather, ſufficient to dry, cart, and ſtack, ſet in on the nineteenth.

About one-fourth loſt its colour, and was ſalted in ſtacking; the reſt, though damaged, was good, and much better than it would have been in the common method of making.

ANTIQUITIES.

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ANTIQUITIES.

Deſcription of Richborough-Caſtle. From Pennant's Journey to the Iſle of Wight.

RICHBOROUGH-caſtle ſtands in the pariſh of Aſh, on the eaſt ſide of the village, on the edge of a lofty ſlope, once waſhed by the ſea: at preſent the Stour paſſes beneath its baſe.

The form is rectangular. Moſt of the walls remain; are very thick, ſtrong, and lofty; and the cement now ſo hard as to baffle the efforts of thoſe who have lately endeavoured to deſtroy them. The materials are great pebbles, flint, chalk, &c. bedded in the mortar, which conſiſts of lime, ſea ſhells, broken tile, and ſmall pebbles. The pieces of chalk were taken by the Romans from the foot of the adjacent cliffs, and have the pholades remaining entire in their cylindrical cells. The whole was faced with ſquare ſtones, perhaps Purbeck, and, as uſual, had tiers of tiles at certain diſtances, two tiles thick: the ſquare ſcaffold holes remain.

The foundation of the wall is pit-ſand, flint, chalk, twice repeated, flints lodged in mortar, and laſtly, a ſtratum of mortar. The thickneſs at the baſe is eleven feet three inches, but at the height of a few feet, ten feet eight inches. The length of the ſouth wall, on the outſide, is 358 feet; of the weſt wall, 490 feet; of the north wall, 560 feet. The north wall, in its moſt perfect part, is about 25 feet high: it ran down the ſlope, towards the ſea, and reverted for the ſpace of about 190 feet along a natural terrace, and ceaſed where the terrace ceaſed, and the bank became inacceſſible. Vaſt fragments of the wall are fallen down the ſlope. The weſt entrance is laid with large ſquared ſtones, ſtratum ſuper ſtratum. Near this place, in the north-weſt corner of the caſtle are found ſnags of ſtags horns ſawed off: boars tuſks; oiſter ſhells in abundance; and the exuviæ of other animals: the whole area is conſiderably above the external ground, and conſiſts of rubbiſh interſperſed with thin layers of mortar. In the north wall, on the outſide, is the foundation of a ſquare tower, and there are marks of four more in different parts of the walls. Their ſituation is pointed out by a particular arrangement of round holes lined ſmoothly with mortar penetrating many feet into the ſubſtance of the wall, but no where pervading it.

The *porta decumana* is beneath a tower in the north wall, through which the entrance into the caſtle is in an oblique direction.

In the area of the caſtle has been lately diſcovered a platform of ſolid maſonry,

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masonary, in form of a parallelogram, the sides of which are 144 feet by 104; the depth five feet. It is a composition of large flint stones and course mortar. On its surface are remains of a superstructure in the shape of a cross, (which has been faced with the squared stones,) rising somewhat above the ground, and more than five feet above the platform.

A wharf, or landing place, was discovered some years ago in the plain at the foot of the slope about forty roods northward of the castle, about four feet high, of a triangular form, one of the sides parallel with the bank, and its opposite angle projecting towards the sea; the sides were nearly equal, of about ten feet each. It was a shell of brick work, two bricks thick, filled with earth, the two projecting sides tied together with a brace of the same material. Two sorts of brick were used in this building; one was 18 inches by 12, and three inches and a half thick; the other 17 by 11, and one and a quarter thick. Mr. Ebenezer Mussel, of Bethnal-Green, near London, purchased the whole quantity of materials, and employed them in paving a court yard, and part of his house.

The amphitheatre lay on the north side: its form is destroyed, but the vast hollow marks the place.

Multitudes of antiquities have been discovered in and about the castle; such as urns, coins, fragments of earthern ware, marble mouldings, and brazen figures of Mercury, and of a bagpiper. The last represents a soldier armed in his helmet playing on the bagpipe, with the pipe in his mouth, and the bag, which is very large, placed almost before him, and pressed with both arms. I have in my voyage to the Hebrides, p 347, given a full history of the use of this instrument at different periods.

Richborough has a most advantageous prospect, which might be one reason for fixing on this situation. It commands all the way from the North to the South Foreland, and all the harbour in which it stood, so that no fleet or vessel could escape its observation.

Account of an Entertainment given by the Society of Lincoln's Inn, to Charles II. and his Court. From Ireland's picturesque Views, and historical Account of the Inns of Court of London and Westminster.

IN the steward's office is the admission book, from 1671 to 1673, containing the following curious account of a visit paid to Lincoln's Inn, by Charles II. and his court. As it tends to display the hospitality of that period, I have inserted it at length. What adds to the curiosity of this account is, that the king and nobility present entered their names with their own hands; and, if we may judge from the appearance of the writing, many of them, and particularly Killigrew, the jester, were a little *non compos mentis*.

"A narrative of the kings majesties reception and entertainment att Lincolnes Inne, the nyne and twentieth day of February, 1671."

"Sir Francis Go dericke, knight, one of his majesties learned councel att law, and solicitor generall to his royal highnesse the duke of Yorke, being reader of this society of Lincolnes Inn for the Lent reading, in the year 1671, having invited the king,

king, his royal highneſſe, and prince Rupert, and diverſe of the nobilitie, to dine in Lincolnes Inne hall, on ſuch day of his reading as his majeſtie ſhould make choice off; his majeſtie was pleaſed to appoint Thurſday, the 29th of February, 1671. And accordingly that day his majeſtie, together with his ſaid royal highneſſe, and his highneſſe prince Rupert, being alſo attended by the duke of Monmouth, the duke of Richmond, the earles of Manchefter, Bath and Angleſea, the lord viſcount Halifax, lord biſhop of Ely, lord Newport, lord Henry Howard, and divers others of great qualitie, came to Lincolnes Inne; his majeſtie made his entrance thro' the garden, att the great gate opening into Chancery lane, next to Holborne, where Mr. Reader, and the reſt of the benchers and aſſociates, waited his coming, and attended his majeſtie up to the tarras walke, next the field, and ſoe through the garden; the trumpetts and kettle drums, from the leads over the higheſt bay window, in the middle of the garden building, ſounding all the while. And from the garden, his majeſtie went to the new councell chamber; the barriſters and ſtudents, in their gownes, ſtanding in a rowe on each ſide, between the garden and the councell chamber; after a little reſt, his majeſtie viewed the chapell, returning agayne to the councell chamber; from thence as ſoon as his table (being placed upon the aſcent att the upper end of the hall, and railed in) was furniſhed, his majeſtie was brought into the hall, where his majeſtie ſat under his canopy of ſtate, being ſerved by the reader as ſerver upon his knee, with the towel, before he did eat; his royal highneſſe ſitting att the end of the table, on his right hand, and prince Rupert att the other end. The dukes and lords, and other his majeſties attendants of qualitie, after ſome ſhort tyme of waiting, had leave from his majeſtie to ſitt downe to dinnar, att tables prepared for them on each ſide of the hall. The reader, and ſome of the benchers, to witt, Sir Thomas Beverly, maſter of requeſts to his majeſtie, ſir Robert Atkins, knight of the Bath, all the time of his majeſties dining, waiting neere his majeſties chaire; and four other of the benchers, Mr. Day, Mr. Pedley, Mr. Stote, and Mr. Manby, with white ſtaffes, waited as controllers of the hall, to keep good order; and about fifty of the barriſters and ſtudents, the moſt part of them attending as waiters, and carrying up his majeſties meat, which was ſerved upon the knee; the reſt of the barriſters and ſtudents waiting upon the lords att their table. The three courſes, wherein were exceeding great plenty and variety of diſhes, and after them a moſt liberal banquett, was ſerved up by the ſaid barriſters and ſtudents, and delivered by them, upon their knees, att the kings table; the muſic, conſiſting of his majeſties violins, playing all the tyme of dinnar in the gallery, att the lower end of the hall. Towards the end of dinnar, his majeſtie, to doe a tranſcendant honour and grace to this ſociety, and to expreſſe his moſt gracious acceptance of their humble duty and affection towards him, was pleaſed to demand the booke of admittances to be brought to him, and with his owne hand, entred his royall name therein; moſt graciouſly condeſcending to make himſelf a member thereof; which high and extraordinary favour was inſtantly acknow-

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acknowledged by all the members of this society, then attending on his majestie, with all possible joy, and received with the greatest and most humble expressions of gratitude; itt beeing an example not precedented by any former king of this realme; his royal highnesse and prince Rupert followed this great and highest example; as also the dukes and other lords, who, before his majesties riseing from dinnar, borrowed gownes of the students and put them on, and, in those gownes, waited on his majestie, with which his majestie was much delighted; and his majestie, thro' his owne most obligeing favour, vouchsafed to itt; having made himselfe more neerly and intimately concerned for the good of this society, was pleased himselfe to begin a health to the welfare thereof, and to cause itt to be pledged in his owne presence; immediately gave the reader leave to drink his majesties health, and to begin to his royal highnesse. Then riseing from dinnar, he was againe attended to the new councell chamber, where he conferred the honour of knighthood on Mr. Nicholas Pedley and Mr. Richard Stote, two of the benchers, who had in their turns beene readers of this house; as also upon Mr. James Butler, one of the barristers, and Mr. Francis Darrell, one of the students; that soe every degree and order of the society might have a signall testimony of his majesties high favour, his majestie, upon his departure, made large expressions of his most gracious acceptance of the entertevnment, and returned his thanks to the reader, and was pleased to signify the great respect and esteem he should ever have for the society."

"The gentlemen of the horse guards, yeomen of the guard, and other inferior attendants, were bountifully enterteyned att the costs and charges also of the reader. The gentlemen of the horse guards dined in the old councell chamber; the yeomen of the guards in Mr. Day's chamber; and the ——— men and lacquies in the gardener's house, to all their contentment."

"On Saturday following, Mr. Reader, sir Robert Atkins, sir Nicholas Pedley, and sir Richard Stote, benchers and readers of Lincoln's Inn, waited on his majestie at Whitehall; being conducted to his majesties presence, by the earle of Bath, and gave most humble thanks for that high and transcendant honour, he had beene pleased to vouchsafe to this society; which was graciously received by his majestie, and did the said benchers the honour to kiss his hand."

General Observations on the Persepolitan Characters, with a Description and Representation of some Bricks lately sent to Europe, from the Scite of ancient Babylon.

ABOUT one day's journey from Shiras, in Persia, appear the ruins of a magnificent edifice, which still attracts the admiration of every traveller. These ruins are called by the Persians Chehil-Minar; or the Forty Columns, although there are always more or less to be seen than that number. The following travellers, Ives, Lewis, Figueroa, Pietro della Valle, Thevenot, Chardin, Gemelli, Le Brun, Kæmpfer, Otter, Niebuhr, and Franklin, have actually visited them; and among writers, the following—Hyde, Caylus, Murr, Langles, Herder, Witte, Wahl,

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Wahl, Hageman, beſides a number of others, have ſpoken of them; and ſeveral have attempted to explain the copious ſculptures which are ſtill viſible on them. But it is chiefly the foreign and unuſual characters and inſcriptions joined to them which have long occupied the ſkill and exerciſed the penetration of many learned Orientaliſts, who have wearied themſelves in fruitleſs attempts to diſcover the alphabet out of which they are compoſed.

Theſe remarkable inſcriptions appear to be regular variations and compoſitions of a right line, as ſir W. Jones well obſerves; and of an angular figure. They have, likewiſe a ſtriking reſemblance to nails, for which reaſon the French writers commonly call them, *caractères à clous*, or the nail-headed characters. They are alſo denominated Perſepolitan, upon the ſuppoſition that theſe columns once formed a part of the royal palace of the ſovereigns of Perſia, called by the Greek writers Perſepolis. Among others, this opinion is advanced by the learned M. Heeſſen, profeſſor at Göttingen, in a work lately publiſhed on that ſubject; an opinion, however, which Mr. Tychſen attempts to refute, who ſuppoſes the palace, the ruins of which ſtill remain, to have been built much later, by the princes who ſucceeded Alexander, and governed that country under the name of the Arſacides and Arſacidæ. Whether this be the caſe or not, or whether theſe ruins date from the time of the firſt and moſt ancient dynaſty of Perſia, the Piſhdadiäns, or whether, as others pretend, they were built by the famous Gemſhid, who is ſaid to have built the celebrated city of Iſtahar, is not the object of our preſent inquiry. It is more certain that the place of the inſcriptions is to this day called Iſtahar, and alſo Tahti-Gemſhid, or the throne of Gemſhid; and it is equally certain that the above-ſaid inſcriptions have been hitherto reckoned peculiar to theſe ruins; at leaſt it is the general opinion of the literati, that they are only to be found on the marbles or gems dug up there, and not in any other part or province of Perſia. More recently, however, the curious diſcovery has been made, that the ſame ſort of characters are to be found, not only in the province of Fars, in Perſia, but that they are copiouſly and uſually met with near the Euphrates, in Chaldea, amongſt what are ſuppoſed to be the ruins of its ancient capital, Babylon. This fact was, indeed, announced ſeveral years ago by M. Beauchamp, correſpondent of the royal academy of ſciences at Paris, who, on his return from Bagdad, where he had reſided ſeveral years, brought to the learned Abbé Barthelemy, ſpecimens of unknown characters, which he diſcovered on the bricks, ſtill remaining in great numbers near Helleh, on the Euphrates, on the identical ſpot, where, according to D'Anville, major Rennel, and other geographers, the ancient Babylon was ſituated. Beſides theſe bricks with inſcriptions, M. Beauchamp likewiſe found ſeveral ſolid cylinders, three inches in diameter, compoſed of a white ſubſtance, and covered with very ſmall writing, reſembling the inſcriptions of Perſepolis, as deſcribed by Chardin; alſo a number of blue ſtones with inſcriptions engraved on them. M. Beauchamp's correſpondence was tranſlated from the French of the *Journal des Scavans*, publiſhed in the year

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year 1782, into English, and inserted in the European Magazine, for 1792.*

M. Michaux also, a French botanist, (the same who has now again accompanied captain Baudin in his voyage of discoveries) during the time of his being at Bagdad procured and lately brought to Paris a fine inscription, which was found in that neighbourhood, and which contained characters resembling the Persepolitan ones. Of this inscription, M. Millin, the present keeper of the cabinet of antiquities, has procured a plaster cast to be made, which is one foot and a half long, and one foot broad, for the purpose of sending copies for the inspection of the foreign literati; one of these is expected to arrive soon in London.

Our curiosity, however, is now still farther and sufficiently excited by the twelve original bricks which have lately arrived in London, sent from Bagdad to the East-India company, and which contain inscriptions perfectly according with the Persepolitan ones, thus confirming M. Beauchamp's discovery. They are of two different kinds: one of those which were merely dried in the sun, the other of those which, like ours, were baked in a furnace. This circumstance wonderfully corresponds with the account given by Herodotus in his first book, in which he relates, that Babylon being in a situation deprived of stones, timber, and other materials for building, nature had abundantly provided for this defect by an inexhaustible store of clay, of the best quality, fit for preparing excellent bricks, which, either dried in the sun or burnt on the fire, acquired a strength sufficient to resist the injury even of many centuries. These bricks are in thickness three inches: their length and breadth is between twelve and thirteen inches, and it was with such bricks that not only Babylon, but, if we may believe Josephus, the famous Tower of Babel was constructed. This last historian farther pretends, that after the deluge two columns were erected by the children of Noah; the one, like our Babylonian bricks, and the other of stone, in order to be able to resist both elements, the water and the fire, in case of a second catastrophe.

A principal question occurs here for solution, viz. whether the above inscriptions are to be read horizontally, and beginning from the left-hand, like the characters of the Sanscrit, and other languages of India and Europe; or whether they are to be read from the right hand to the left, like the Hebrew, the Arabic, and other Oriental dialects; whether they must be read perpendicularly, either from the top to the bottom, like the Chinese, the Mongul, and the Japanese characters; or from the bottom to the top, as is related of the ancient Mexicans, by the Jesuit Acosta, and of some nations in Asia at the present day. Niebuhr and Tychsen lean to the former opinion, viz. that they are to be read horizontally, and from the left to the right; whilst Raspe thinks they ought to be read perpendicularly, and Wahl pretends, that they run, at least sometimes, from the right to the left.

Another question, likewise, suggests itself, whether these nail-headed characters are of the alphabetic kind, like ours in Europe; whether they are of the syllabic

* A part of it was also given in our Register for 1793.

kind,

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kind, like the Habeſſinian, the Devanagari, and other Oriental alphabets; or laſtly, whether they are hieroglyphical, like thoſe on the Egyptian pyramids, or, at leaſt, expreſſing complete ideas by arbitrary ſigns, like the characters uſual amongſt the Chineſe, and amongſt a number of nations, different in language, in the ſouth-eaſt regions of Aſia. Hyde, a hundred years ago, took them to be mere ſcrawlings or uſeleſs ornaments, totally deſtitute of any ſenſible ſignification; and indeed M. Witte, profeſſor at Roſtock, in a pamphlet lately publiſhed, endeavours to prove the ſame; while others again will have it, that they contain great myſteries, and are even denotative of the ſecret doctrines of the Magi. Niebuhr, who has brought to Europe the moſt accurate drawings of theſe characters hitherto procurable, contends for their being alphabetical, and, to confirm his opinion, adduces no leſs than three different alphabets for the ſame kind of writing. One of theſe M. Tychſen, at Roſtock, has made uſe of, with a view to decypher a part of theſe inſcriptions. To this notion, however, he ſeems to have gained no proſelytes, and the explanation which he has given in his eſſay lately publiſhed in Germany, appears ſo forced and unnatural, that it has already in a manner loſt all credit with the German literati.

It may be farther obſerved here, that colonel, now general Vallancy, in his Iriſh grammar, publiſhed in 1773, affirmed, that the Perſepolitan characters bear a ſtrong reſemblance to that ſpecies of writing which the Iriſh call *Ogam*. But the characters are ſo complex, according to ſir W. Jones, in his Diſſertation on the Perſians, and the variations ſo numerous, as to preclude an opinion that they could be ſymbols of articulate ſounds. For even the *Nagari* ſyſtem, he obſerves, which has more diſtinct letters than any one known alphabet, conſiſts only of forty-nine ſingle characters, two of which are mere ſubſtitutions, and four of little uſe in Sanſcrit or any other language; while the more complicated Perſepolitan figures, as exhibited by Niebuhr, muſt be as numerous, at leaſt, as the Chineſe keys, which are the ſigns of ideas only, and none of which reſemble the old Perſian letters at Iſtahar. Thus far ſir W. Jones.

Amongſt theſe and other opinions I hope ſoon to lay before the public, my own, in a larger work, and, by that means if poſſible, throw ſome farther light on a ſubject which has not been hitherto ſufficiently elucidated.

J. Hager.

London, June 4, 1801.

Account of an ancient Monument at Vienne.

CITIZEN Schneider, profeſſor of deſign at Vienne, has lately read to the lyceum of Grenoble, a Diſſertation on the Cenotaph in the former city, called the Spire *(le plan de l' Aiguille,)* in which he enters into an exact deſcription of its conſtruction, according to the principles of architecture, and accompanies theſe details with a number of conjectures; which may ſerve to ſhew on what occaſion this monument was erected; conjectures, he obſerves, which carry with them the greater air of probability, as they will be found to be ſupported by the uſage of the Romans, and by general hiſtory. The ſingular ſtructure

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tare of this monument attracts the curiosity of the traveller; but no one, there is reason to think, has hitherto discovered its precise destination nor its architecture. It would appear, according to many designs and memoirs which the Professor has met with, to be a shapeless mass, without taste or without art; but he proves the contrary by his description alone, and by the simple and natural reflections resulting therefrom, which develope the merit of this fragment of antiquity. This monument occupies but little space; it only comprehends seventeen feet eight inches square, not including the fore part of the pedestals of the angular columns, which take up thirteen inches six lines, (a line is the twelfth part of an inch,) without their bases; and which further extend four inches six lines square in all, twenty feet, eight inches square. Its height, to the upper part of the entablature, is twenty-two feet; and the pyramid, with its base, is nearly fifty feet; which gives in all seventy-two feet in elevation, although there wants about twelve feet in proceeding from the progressive proportions observed in its tapering, from its base to the apex, to form the point or needle. The thickness of the walls which form the body of the pyramid, is two feet, seven inches; consequently its interior space is twelve feet, six inches at the base. The angular columns, by which this monument is flanked, are about twenty two inches in diameter; their height is fourteen feet nine inches, including the bases and capitals, which would only make seven diameters and a half, or fifteen modules, which are the proportions of the columns between the Doric and Ionic. These columns are engaged by quarters (*du quart,*) in the construction, make a part of it, and sustain the whole monument. Doubtless the Corinthian proportions would have been too feeble to accomplish this object. They lessen gradually to the top, as almost all the ancient columns do, and sufficiently fill the eye in the whole view. The bases are Attic, and have never been completed; one of the four is still rough and unpolished, which has given cause to certain ignorant persons to call this a monument of the bad ages and Gothic. The proportions of the capitals are Corinthian. Although they are not as yet sculptured, it is easy to see that they have been prepared for capitals of that order, and will not agree with any other. Virtuvius only assigns them two modules, and these have something more; although to the eye they appear too low, they would, no doubt, appear more elevated, if the sculpture were finished. Four piazzas in the four fronts reveal a very bold cieling made in imitation of basket-work the stones of the architecture appear supported by the key-stones of the piazzas, and covered by the stones of the frieze and cornice, formed of two beds of stones, laid by bound masonry on each other. These and other proportions indicated by citizen Schneider shew clearly that this monument is Corinthian, and of good taste. The inclination of the pyramids is so well combined, that all the weight rests on the centre of the pedestals of the columns; so that the columns serve for buttresses, and uphold the whole fabric. The totality of this structure is seated on a massive base of free-stone,

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of a quality similar to those employed in the rest of the work, cramped horizontally with iron, and cemented with lead; so that the whole is bound together, and forms only a single body. (This may serve to prove the durability of iron in monuments, and consequently justify the use made of that metal by a celebrated modern architect, the late M. Soufflot, in the construction of the famous church of St. Geneviève at Paris.) The whole monument is only composed of thirty-four rows of stones, of which the pyramid has twenty-three, including the base. Neither lime nor cement has been employed in it; the stones are so well joined, that the finest blade could not be insinuated between two, and indeed it would be difficult to find the junctures in many places. This is a an instance of perfection in handicraft work, in which the moderns have never yet approached the Romans. There are in the base some stones so big that some pass from one piazza to the other, and make part of the two walls and of the columns, and sometimes even of the pedestals. All these precautions of solidity, the figure of the monument, its regular order, the quality of the materials, which are selected stones, an antique species of marble, susceptible of the finest polish; its piazzas all its parts, in a word, announce that it is a public monument which has never been finished; even the surface of the facings has not been smoothed over in any part, nor even the columns; which would induce a presumption, that they would accord better with the Corinthian order. The whole altogether of the monument is beautiful; it breathes an air of grandeur, and inspires a veneration, which well characterizes the antique. Different opinions have prevailed relative to the origin and subject of this monument. Some pretend, that it is the tomb of Venerius, founder of Vienne; others say it was the military stone of the city, serving for a decoration to the middle of its ancient precinct; while Chorier, in his Antiquities of Vienne, pretends that it is the cenotaph of Augustus.

In regard to its denomination, the antiquary Chorier is right, having discovered the true qualification of the pyramid, and is only mistaken as to the name of the prince who was the object of it. The other conjectures are fabulous. Citizen Schneider proceeds to observe, that he found it necessary to penetrate into the centre of the pyramid, in order to find out its interior construction more perfectly, and to ascertain the form and object of the pyramid. This operation, he adds, might be performed without damaging or degrading the monument. He communicated his project to the intendant of the province in the presence of the mayor and *echevins*, in the month of October, 1776, who appeared to applaud it unanimously. He had scarcely, however, set his hand to work, before he experienced opposition, founded on false alarms, and which betrayed more of inquietude than of science. These obstacles long suspended his labour, which consisted in taking away, by means of pincers, one of the stones of the body of the pyramid to discover if it was hollow, as he had always suspected, and in that case, to penetrate into it, examine it, and describe its interior structure. Being cited before the municipal body, he tranquillized

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tranquillized the magiſtrates as to the fate of the monument; and having, after ſome time, returned his reſearches, under the protection of the intendant he at length opened the deſired paſſage. He found nothing above the cieling (where there was a heap of earth and duſt, which the rain had filtred through in the courſe of time) but an empty ſpace of about ſix feet ſquare, and which grows narrower to the top, following the form of the pyramid, that is to ſay, as far the ſixteenth row of ſtones; the reſt is maſſive as far as the apex; the ſtones are of bound maſonry, and are rough and unpoliſhed within. After having thus diſſipated his doubts, it was eaſy for him to fhut the temporary aperture he had made in the pyramid, by ſubſtituting another ſtone in the place; but it was thought preferable, he ſays, to place there an iron door, by favour of which they are enabled to introduce the curious who would verify his obſervations. Lastly, to ſee whether it contained any ſubterraneous vault which ſerved for a tomb, he pierced and ſounded the middle, and, perpendicular with the cieling, the maſſive on which the whole ſtructure is eſtabliſhed; he then dug up the earth which ſurrounded it, and, after having examined the foundation through its whole interior and exterior circumference as far as was poſſible, he found no index which might lead to a preſumption, that it incloſes any ſubterranean or void ſpace deſtined to receive a coffin. In effect, ſays the profeſſor, it did not accord with the religion of the Romans thus to expoſe the remains of the perſons whom they honoured with the apotheoſis, to be trampled under feet: and the ſarcophagus, if there had been one in the monument, would have had its place in the void part of the pyramid, and would have repoſed on the cieling; or elſe, after other examples, the aſhes, depoſited in an urn, would have been placed on the pinnacle or top part of the pyramid. It is then, ſays the profeſſor, a real cenotaph. It remains to determine, to the honour of whom it was erected. It could not be to Auguſtus, becauſe no author mentions it; and beſides, that emperor had already at Vienne a celebrated temple elevated to his memory, as the profeſſor has eſpecially eſtabliſhed, in his deſcription of that place; and the uſage of the Romans was not to multiply thoſe ſorts of honours in the ſame place for the ſame perſon. After all the reſearches here detailed, citizen Schneider, at length, had recourſe to ancient hiſtory. He proceeds to ſay, that he has remarked no great perſonage who has better deſerved to be honoured and immortalized by a ſimilar monument, than Alexander Severus. In effect, according to the report of Lampridius, in his Hiſtory of the Emperors, he was a juſt and amiable prince, a lover and favourer of the arts and ſciences, and one who made it his whole buſineſs to ſecure the happineſs of the people, who had ſurnamed him, it ſeems, Severus, becauſe of his rigour in military diſcipline. A model and protector of virtue, this prince highly approved of the Chriſtian morality, and never ceaſed that fundamental maxim of all morality "Do unto others as you would they ſhould do unto you." He cauſed this fine maxim to be engraved in his palace, and on the public edifices. His moderation and his modeſty

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deſty, which equalled his merit and courage, made him refuſe all the vain and faſtidious titles with which the ſenate would decorate him, accuſtomed to adulation under the preceding reigns. But all the great qualities of Alexander could not ſave him from the moſt fatal deſtiny. In the flower of his age, in the midſt of his triumphs, beloved by his ſubjects, honoured by his enemies, he fell, aſſaſſinated in his tent by a cruel monſter, whilſt he was repoſing at noon in the environs of Mentz, at Schilingen, in the year 235 of the Chriſtian æra, at the age of 26 years and ſome months, after having reigned thirteen years complete. The death of Alexander Severus cauſed a univerſal grief (ſays Lampridius, and after him Crevier, Ancient Hiſtory,) at Rome, and throughout the whole empire, as the mildneſs and equity of his government had rendered him extremely popular. He was bitterly lamented; in ſhort, adored as a god. Laſtly, the hiſtorians add, that a cenotaph was erected for him in Gaul, and that his body, taken to the capital (Rome,) was incloſed in a magnificent tomb, and the higheſt honours paid to it. A religious ſolemnity and feſtivals were inſtituted to his honour, which were ſtill obſerved at the time when Lampridius wrote. We are not acquainted, ſays citizen Schneider, with any cenotaph in Gaul, but that of Vienne, excepting that of Druſus, erected near the Rhine, at Mentz, of which hiſtory makes a particular mention. Hence ariſes a principal and ſtrong preſumption that this cenotaph is that of Alexander Severus, of which Lampridius ſpeaks; although he does not cite the city, he ſays, in Gaul. Vienne was the principal city of it, the capital, and one of the moſt conſiderable places of war, as, ſays citizen Schneider, I have already ſhewn. It ſcarcely admits of a doubt, and is, on the other hand, very natural to think, that Vienne would have the honour of immortalizing a prince ſo generally regretted as Alexander Severus. Thus, ſays citizen Schneider, from a variety of cauſes, great cities ſtriving to imitate Rome (and Vienne, it ſeems, juſtly merited the title of beautiful and ſecond Rome,) a coincidence of facts, circumſtances, and conjectures, a ſort of probable certainty is formed, which authoriſes us to conclude that our monument is the cenotaph of Alexander Severus, reſpectable for its antiquity, and much more as it is the cenotaph of the firſt protector of the Chriſtians; and indeed it was under his reign that the firſt church was raiſed in which worſhip was publicly rendered to Jeſus Chriſt. Although he made profeſſion of Paganiſm, we are informed that he had a ſecret inclination for Chriſtianity, which his mother Mammæa; a Chriſtian born, had inſpired him with. Things ſoon changed their face under the reign of Maximin, the murderer and ſucceſſor of Alexander Severus, but a tyrant as much hated and deteſted as his predeceſſor was beloved. Maximin, doubtleſs, with a view to conceal his crime and conciliate the people, at firſt affected reſpect for the memory of Alexander, and even feigned to approve of the funeral honours which had been decreed to him. But not being able to conceal his ferocious character long, he ſoon manifeſted contrary ſentiments, by baniſhing from the court and army all

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all the friends of the young and virtuous Alexander, among whom were a great number of Chriſtians, who were violently perſecuted, and their churches pulled down. Civil wars and other revolutions rendered the reign of Maximin very ſtormy. This univerſal diſorder was, doubtleſs, one of the principal cauſes which prevented our monument from being terminated and brought to perfection. The profeſſor then proceeds to inveſtigate and explain why this ſort of monuments had a pyramidal form. The pyramid is a well-known ſymbol of immortality, as we learn by its etymology from the word in Greek ſignifying fire or flame. Another reaſon or motive of this conſtruction is, that its form is more ſolid and more durable than any other—on this account, the kings of Egypt adopted it for their famous tombs, known by the names of the pyramids of Egypt. In effect, this figure of a building reſiſts better the injuries of time; the rain-water runs from it more eaſily, and cannot lodge on it; the four corners are expoſed to the four cardinal points, ſo that the four principal winds cannot ſtrike it at right angles. The Greeks have preſerved for their funeral monuments the pyramidal figure which they had received from the Egyptians, as the Romans learned it from the Greeks. We have retained it from both theſe nations, and preſerved it in our mauſolea. The Greeks and Romans endeavoured to bring theſe monuments to perfection, and to render them more agreeable to the eye, by giving them a lighter and bolder conſtruction. For this purpoſe, they elevated them, ſome by means of a pedeſtal, and ſome were placed on an entire body of architecture, which ſerved for a baſis. Of the latter kind is the cenotaph of Vienne. Nevertheleſs this novelty of method did not at all injure the ſolidity, as our monument demonſtrates. The four angles in it are oppoſed to four cardinal points, in imitation of the pyramids of Egypt, which, in all probability, has greatly contributed to its preſervation. Father Montfaucon makes mention likewiſe of this monument (in his book, intitled Antiquities Explained,) after Spon. On the article of tombs, he gives a deſign in which our cenotaph is not at all diſcernible. Theſe are his words: — "I conceive that we ought to take for a mauſoleum the pyramid which is near Vienne, ſuſtained by four pillars, adorned with four columns that ſupport a vault of eighteen feet elevation; on the vault riſes a pyramid of from twenty-five to thirty feet; the whole may ſtand from forty to fifty feet high." This deſcription, continues the profeſſor, is doubtleſs made at random, for here are neither pillars nor vault in the body of the architecture that ſupports the pyramid; and Montfaucon is miſtaken by twenty-four feet in the whole height,—he forgets the entablature, and ſuppoſes, in his deſign, elliptic arches, which were never yet ſeen in antique monuments. It is ſurpriſing, that both Spon and Montfaucon, ſhould have been ſo negligent in verifying ſo fine a fragment of antiquity; and Spon eſpecially, who was ſome time at Vienne. But probably he ſpoke or wrote of it when he was no longer in the country. The profeſſor terminates theſe obſervations by ſome general reflections on the object and principal utility of this ſort of works.

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Reasons why the County of Surry should not be charged with any great Number of horses. Extracted from a Volume of original Letters and State Papers written in the Reign of Elizabeth.

GENERALL Cauſes whie the Countie of Surry ſhould not be chardged with anie great nomber of horſes or geldings, as enſueth.

Firſt, that it is one of the leaſt Shires in England, it is well knowen.

Secondarilie, that it is one of the barreneſt, it is manifeſt, for that it is not able of it ſelf to finde the Shire either in Cattell, or Shepe, or anie other comoditie, & much leſſe to provide it ſelf off horſes & geldings.

Thirdlie, moſte chardged of anie Shire in England, by reaſon that her Matie lieth in or about the Shire contynuallie, & thereby is chardged wth contynuall removes, & alſo wth contynuall cariadge with coles, wood, & other proviſion to the Court: Alſo by my Lord Treaſurer for the reparacions of her Maties houſes, & likewiſe with contynuall carriadge for the Admiraltie, & laſtlie for the Maſter of the Ordynance.

Fourthlie, that a great part of the Shire lieth in the Forreſt, for that the Bailywike of Windſor Forreſt is a great parte in Surrey.

Fifthlie, another great parte of the Shire lyeth upon Downes, & high ground, which are but barren, as is very well knowen.

Sixthlie, there is verie little meadow in the whole Shire, whereby it ſholde be able to finde anie ſorte of horſes & geldings, in the Winter eſpecialiie; & but few in the Summer.

Laſtlie, there is never a Shire in England ſo depelie teſſed in the Subſidies, as this Shire is, by reaſon that it is ſo nygh the Courte that both gentlemens lyvings & others are verie well knowen, to as if any defaulte ſhould be, it is ſtreightwaie ſubiect to controlement.

Notes taken by Lord Orford at Woburn Abbey; not inserted in his Works. Notes to the Pictures at Woburn-Abbey. By H. W. 1791.

1. ROBERT Devereux, Earl of Eſſex, the celebrated favourite of Queen Elizabeth.

2. Katherine Bruges, daughter and coheir of Giles baron Chandos, wife of Francis Ruſſel, fourth earl of Bedford.

3. Edward Ruſſel, third earl of Bedford, died without iſſue.

6. Sir William Ruſſel, knight of the Bath, when young; a very curious picture by Priwitzer, a painter by whom no other picture is known in England. Sir William was eldeſt ſon of Francis, fourth earl of Bedford, whom he ſucceeded in the title, was father of the excellent William lord Ruſſel, and after the revolution in 1688 was created, by king William, duke of Bedford—but a more affecting triumph had been offered to his feeling by his ſon's chief enemy. James II. on the landing of the prince of Orange, was ſo weak as to have recourſe for advice to the earl of Bedford: the earl anſwered with this melancholy but piercing reproach, "I had a ſon, ſir, who could have adviſed your majeſty."

7. Lady Ann Carr, wife of the preceding peer, and only child of Robert Carr, earl of Somerſet, by the

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the remarkable Frances Howard, countess of Essex. It is said, that lady Bedford was entirely ignorant of the history of her parents, till by accident she met with their trial in print.

Extract of a Letter from Mr. Gerrard to Lord Strafford.

"We have here also another considerable heir, my lord Russel, this winter come from beyond the seas, where he hath spent two years, an handsome gentile man, and there is much looking at him. There are three young ladies ripe of marriage; it is thought he will settle upon one of them; my lady Eliz. Cecil, the lady Ann Carr, and the lady Dorothy Sidney; yet the voice goes that he bends somewhat towards the lady Ann Carr; though it is said his father hath given him the admonition to chuse any where but there."—Strafford's Letters, Vol. I. 359

8. Francis Russel, fourth earl of Bedford, son of William lord Russel, of Thornhaugh, succeeded to the title on the death of his cousin earl Edward. He was the principal promoter of the great plan for draining the fens, since called the Bedford Level. Afterwards, though zealous for the liberty of his country, he was so wise and temperate a man, that lord Clarendon thought the death of lord Bedford, in 1641, was a great blow to the king's affairs, as his lordship had both inclination and influence enough to have prevented much of the violence that ensued.

12. George Digby, earl of Bristol, and William Russel, fifth earl of Bedford (and afterwards duke), mentioned above. The former was the memorable lord Digby; and though these lords were probably friends* at the time when they sat for their portraits in one piece, their characters were exceedingly dissimilar. Lord Bedford was honest, sincere, and moderate; and so far from being a bigot to party, that he often fluctuated, yet still with a view to preserving the balance of the constitution, and without even being suspected of acting from self-interest or ambition. Lord Bristol, with brighter parts, was rash, enterprising, full of art, and by no means steady to the principles of honour, nor firm to those of religion. Both distinguished themselves by personal bravery; but Bristol's restless ambition and subtlety only fulfilled his reputation. Bedford's integrity and temper carried him to the grave with honour at the great age of eighty-seven.

13. Rachel de Rouvigny, a French lady, wife of the virtuous lord treasurer Southampton, and mother of that exalted heroine Rachel lady Russel, who will be mentioned in the following pages.

15. Lady Gertrude Levison, daughter of John first earl of Gower, and widow of John fourth duke of Bedford, presenting their only daughter, lady Caroline Russel (afterwards duchess of Marlborough), to Minerva for her education.

19. Francis marquis of Tavistock, only son of John and Gertrude, duke and duchess of Bedford. He died in consequence of a fall from his horse as he was hunting, but not before such genuine honour, generosity, and every amiable virtue had shown through the veil of natu-

* They were brothers-in-law. Vide No. 45.

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ral-modeſty, that no young man of quality, ſince the earl of Oſſory, ſon of the duke of Ormond, had inſpired ſonder hopes, attracted higher eſteem, or died ſo univerſally lamented.

20. Lady Elizabeth Keppel, youngeſt daughter of William Anne, ſecond earl of Albemarle, and wife of the preceding. Her beauty and merit had deſerved ſuch a lord; and the ſhort time ſhe ſurvived him proved the felicity and miſery that had fallen to her lot.

21. Lady Cook, wife of ſir Anthony Cook, of Guidea Hall, in Eſſex, tutor to king Edward the ſixth, and mother of the four learned daughters, lady Burleigh, lady Bacon, lady Ruſſel, and Mrs. Killegrew. Lady Ruſſel, was married to ſir Thomas Hobby, and afterwards to John, ſecond ſon of Francis Ruſſel, ſecond earl of Bedford. This lady erected the claſſic tomb in Weſtminſter Abbey to her ſiſter-in-law Elizabeth Ruſſel, but with the Chriſtian addition of a death's head; her pointing to which gave riſe to the vulgar notion of her having bled to death by pricking her finger.

22. Francis, fourth earl of Bedford. (I ſuppoſe when young.) The ſame perſon as No. 8.

23. Elizabeth, daughter of Henry Long, of Shengay, wife of ſir William Ruſſel, baron Ruſſel of Thornhaugh, and mother of Francis, fourth earl of Bedford.

24. Lady Anne Ruſſel, eldeſt daughter of Francis, ſecond earl of Bedford, and wife of Ambroſe Dudley, earl of Warwick. She was much in the favour of queen Elizabeth.

25. Edward Clinton, earl of Lincoln, a brave, and probably a very prudent man; for beſides being lord high admiral for thirty years, in four moſt difficult reigns, he was intruſted with various martial and ceremonious commiſſions, for moſt of which he was amply rewarded, without having performed any action of conſpicuous eclat. He ſeems to have laid himſelf open neither to enemies, nor reproach, and to have been content with ſecuring fortune by his ſervices, without riſking it by overrating his abilities. Such diſcreet courtiers are uſeful to their prince and to their own families, preſerve dignity in their own time, but leave little to be recorded but their genealogies. The peremptory and determined tempers of the Tudors neceſſarily formed many ſuch proficients, of whom the firſt marquis of Wincheſter was the moſt dexterous: the quinteſſence of his wiſdom, which preſerved him lord treaſurer to the age of ninety-ſeven, was couched in his maxim of being an oſier rather than an oak.

26. Frances Howard, a daughter of the lord treaſurer Suffolk, married firſt to Robert, earl of Eſſex, and then to Robert Carr, earl of Somerſet, favourite of James the firſt, by a ſentence of nullity, that fell bitterly on the under agents, diſgraced the prelates who pronounced it, and cauſed the ruin and diſcontent of the parties concerned, who, tradition ſays, grew to live under the ſame roof with the utmoſt hatred and eſtrangement. The earl of Eſſex ſeems to have brooded over his reſentment to the monarch (who firſt protected Somerſet, then deſerted him with treacherous alacrity, and then pardoned him), till he was revenged on his majeſty's ſon, by accepting the command of the parliamentary army againſt him. He did not ſucceed ſo well in confuting the injuſtice

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injuſtice of the ſentence of nullity by taking a ſecond wife; and his having owned an indiſpoſition *quoad* the firſt, was more believed than it had been originally, when he left no iſſue by the ſecond.

28. Henry Danvers, earl of Danby. He deſerved, by his bravery and ſervices in the wars in Flanders and France, the notice of prince Maurice and of Henry IV. and was therefore worthy of the honours and knighthood of the garter beſtowed by James I.; and he cloſed his fair career by founding the phyſic-garden at Oxford. In the collection at Houghton, and now at Peterſburg, was another noble whole length portrait by Vandyck of this good lord in the robes of the garter, his amiable countenance being dignified, not contraſted by a ſcar from a wound on his temple.

29. As there is no date in the catalogue to this article, I cannot tell which of the Henries, earls of Northumberland, it repreſents.

30. Francis, ſecond ſon of Francis, fourth earl of Bedford. He died in France, unmarried, a month before his father.

31. John, third ſon of the ſame earl. He ſerved in the civil war on the king's ſide, and after the reſtoration, was made colonel of the firſt regiment of foot guards. See more of him in "Les Memoires de Grammont."

32. Lady Catherine Ruſſel, eldeſt daughter of ditto, and wife of Robert, lord Brook.

33. Edward Montagu, earl of Mancheſter, better known by his earlier title of lord Kimbolton, one of the five members demanded by king Charles the firſt. After the reſtoration, he was appointed lord chamberlain by king Charles the ſecond. He married lady Margaret Ruſſel, daughter of Francis, earl of Bedford.

34. Henry Wriotheſley, earl of Southampton. I cannot tell whether this is the ſecond or third earl, but I ſuppoſe the latter, who was the dear friend of Robert, earl of Eſſex, with whom he was condemned, but ſpared by Elizabeth, and reſtored by James I. He was father of the lord treaſurer Southampton, and conſequently grandfather of Rachel, lady Ruſſel.

35. John Ruſſel, fourth duke of Bedford.

36. I cannot tell which of the earls of Haddington this is.

37. Lady Diana Ruſſel, fourth and youngeſt daughter of Francis, fourth earl of Bedford, and wife of Francis, lord Newport.

38. Dorothy, daughter of T. Savage, earl Rivers, and wife of Charles Howard, earl of Berkſhire.

39. Mary, lady Herbert, wife of the famous lord Herbert, of Cherbury. See his life.

40. Chriſtian, counteſs of Devonſhire; a lady of much note in her time. She was daughter of the lord Bruce, of Kinlos, one of the favourites of James the firſt, who, to facilitate her match into ſo great a family, gave her, beſides his recommendation, ten thouſand pounds. Sir Edward Bruce, killed in the remarkable duel with the earl of Dorſet, was one of her brothers. In her youth, ſhe was the platonic miſtreſs of William, earl of Pembroke, who, according to the romantic gallantry of that age, wrote a volume of poems in her praiſe, which were publiſhed and dedicated to her by Dr. Donne. In every period ſhe ſeems to have held one of thoſe female tribunals of literature

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ture firſt inſtituted by the marquis de Rambouillet, at Paris, and of late years very numerous there. The lord Liſle, in a letter to ſir William Temple, tells him, that the old counteſs of Devonſhire's houſe was Mr. Waller's chief theatre. (See Fenton's notes on Waller.) One of her dependants has recorded her life in a ſmall tract written in the more ſpiritual tone of thoſe times. Upon the whole, her ladyſhip ſeems to have been a fair model of our ancient nobility, a compound of piety, regularity, dignity, and human wiſdom, ſo directly claſſed, as to ſuffer none of them to treſpaſs on the intereſts of its aſſociates. Thus, while her devotion was univerſally admired, her prudence intruſted the education of her eldeſt ſon to Mr. Hobbes; and though ſhe lived up to the ſplendour of her rank, having a jointure of 5000*l.* a year, ſo judicious was her economy, that ſhe nearly doubled it; and having procured the wardſhip of her ſon, ſhe managed his affairs ſo ſkilfully, as to extricate his eſtate from a vaſt debt and thirty law-ſuits, having, by her *affability and ſweet addreſs* (ſays her biographer), ſo ingratiated herſelf with the ſages of the law, that king Charles told her, "Madam, you have all my judges at your diſpoſal." Nor were politics neglected by a lady ſo exquiſitely tinctured with a knowledge of the world. On the contrary, lady Devonſhire was not only buſy, but reckoned inſtrumental in the conduct of the reſtoration, being truſted by that pearl of ſecrecy, general Monck. In a word, if this counteſs in the flower of her age was, like the queen of Bohemia, the theme of the wits and poets of the court, in her riper years ſhe ſeems to have imbibed the profitable wiſdom of her lord's grandmother, the famous counteſs of Shrewſbury, and to have made it her ſtudy to preſerve and augment that wealth and importance to the houſe of Cavendiſh, of which the grandam had laid ſuch ample foundations.

41. Anne Carr, daughter of Robert, earl of Somerſet, wife of William, earl, and afterwards duke of Bedford, and mother of lord Ruſſel; a lady whoſe misfortunes began with the diſgrace of her parents, and were wound up by the tragic death of her excellent ſon, whom ſhe ſurvived but a year.

42. Thomas Wriotheſley, earl of Southampton, lord treaſurer. It is remarkable, that puritannic virulence never aſperſed lord Southampton, either when he oppoſed their power or roſe on their ruin; that his virtues eſcaped both contagion and ridicule in a moſt profligate and ſatiric court; and that ſincere patriots believe, that the gates were ſhut againſt the inroad of prerogative at the reſtoration of the man who was placed by the king at the head of the treaſury.

43. Lucy, daughter of John, lord Harrington, and wife of Edward, earl of Bedford. This lady was the laviſh patroneſs of the leſs opulent wits of that age; and as her munificence was directed to more viſionary views than that of the counteſs of Devonſhire, the eſtate of her lord, who was a weak man, was conſiderably impaired by her oſtentation. One of her ladyſhip's portraits here is drawn in a fantaſtic habit dancing. Sir William Temple has recorded the taſte of her garden at Moor Park—but newer principles of taſte have prevailed ſince he wrote.

44. Lady

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44. Lady Catherine Ruſſel, eldeſt daughter of Francis, earl of Bedford, and wife of Robert, lord Brook.

45. Lady Anne, ſecond daughter to ditto, wife of George Digby, earl of Briſtol.

46. Lady Margaret, third daughter, wife of James Hay, earl of Carliſle. She was ſecondly married to Robert Rich, earl of Warwick; and thirdly to Edward Montagu, earl of Mancheſter. There is a print after Vandyck of this lady with an infant daughter, who probably died young, as the counteſs is ſaid to have left no iſſue.

47. Lady Diana, fourth daughter, wife of Francis, lord Newport.

48. Edward Ruſſel, fourth ſon of earl Francis, and father of Edward Ruſſel, earl of Orford.

49 and 50. The ſame perſons as No. 45 and 46, as 51 is the ſame as 47.

52. Probably *Lucy*—I find no Catherine, wife of an earl Edward.

53. As no Chriſtian name is ſpecified, I cannot tell which earl of Rutland is meant. Query, if not the huſband of lady Catherine, No. 68.

54. Thomas Cecil, earl of Exeter, eldeſt ſon of lord treaſurer Burleigh; a man of courage and dignity, who attained no renown, and incurred no reproach. As he declined the earldom when firſt offered to him, from the incompetency of his fortune, it ſhewed there was no oſtentation in his virtues.

55. Sir Nicholas Throckmorton, a ſtateſman of abilities, much employed by queen Elizabeth in arduous negociations, but who ſeems to have marred his own fortune by enmity to Burleigh, and by too much attachment to Leiceſter, who was ſuſpected of removing him ſoully, to ſtifle ſecrets to which he had been privy—but rumour is no evidence; and David Lloyd, who records him in his State Worthies, and who does ſeem to have been acquainted with much more private hiſtory of his perſonages than has otherwiſe been tranſmitted to us, is ſo much fonder of ſhining than of unfolding, that having quoted no authorities for his anecdotes, we muſt truſt too much to broken hints, which we ſhould be glad, but are never likely now, to ſee elucidated. Sir Nicholas's ſtory, therefore, will probably remain obſcure.

56. Frances, lady Chandos, daughter of the earl of Lincoln, and wife of Giles, lord Chandos.

57. Elizabeth Bruges, daughter of Giles, lord Chandos, baron of Sudely.

58. William Ruſſel, firſt duke of Bedford. Vide No. 12.

59. William, lord Ruſſel, the well-known martyr to the cauſe of his country.

60. Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper, a wiſe and worthy man, eclipſed in every thing but his virtues by that tranſcendant genius the chancellor, his ſon. *Æt.* 52.

61. William, lord Ruſſel, baron of Thornhaugh and lord deputy of Ireland, and youngeſt ſon of Francis, ſecond earl of Bedford. He was a conſiderable perſon, of whom there is a full account in Collins's Peerage, in the family of Bedford, to which I have nothing to add.

62. Sir Edward Gorges, æt. ſuæ 37, anno 1597.

63. Sir Joſceline Percy, ſeventh ſon of Henry, earl of Northumberland, d. 1631.

64. Elizabeth, queen of England.

65. Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk. Such was the capricious cruelty

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cruelty of Henry VIII. that though he fell ſo unmercifully on the houſe of Norfolk, out of which he had married two wives, Anne Boleyn and Catherine Howard, and had married his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, to a third female of that family; yet the earl of Angus and the duke of Suffolk, who married his two ſiſters, though dowager queens of Scotland and France, without his leave, were ſpared, and the firſt kept his head, and the latter his majeſty's favour.

66. Edward, earl of Lincoln, lord high admiral of England, 1584. Vide No. 25.

67. Rachel, ſecond daughter of William, lord Ruſſel, ætat 12½, afterwards married to William, ſecond duke of Devonſhire.

68. Catherine, third daughter, ætat 9½, afterwards married to the firſt duke of Rutland.

69. John Ruſſel, firſt earl of Bedford, and patriarch of the family.

70. Robert Dudley, earl of Leiceſter, the well-known favourite of queen Elizabeth.

71. Ambroſe Dudley, earl of Warwick, elder brother of Leiceſter.

72. Anne, counteſs of Warwick, his wife. The ſame perſon as No. 24.

73. Sir Francis Ruſſel, third ſon of Francis, firſt earl of Bedford, but ſurviving his two elder brothers became lord Ruſſel, yet was killed on the borders of Scotland the day before the death of the earl, his father, whoſe title fell to Edward, the only ſon of this ſir Francis.

74. Edward, lord Ruſſel, eldeſt ſon of the firſt earl Francis, ætat. 22, 1573.

75. Francis, the firſt of that name, and ſecond earl of Bedford. This earl, like his father, was always in great employments, and left a fair character.

76. I believe the ſame perſon as No. 73.

77. The ſame perſon as No. 31.

78. Giles, lord Chandos, ætat. 43.

79. Anne of Denmark, wife of king James the firſt; a woman content with ſhow and pleaſure, who had no credit with her huſband, nor appears to have aimed at or deſerved any.

80. Lady Binlos. In the peerages her huſband is called Francis Binlos. She was daughter of Henry Weſt, lord Delawar.

81. Lord Wimbledon. Sir Edward Cecil, the only viſcount Wimbledon, had three wives. I do not know which of them this repreſents.

82. Lady Margaret Ruſſel, daughter of Francis, ſecond earl of Bedford, who having obtained the wardſhip of George Clifford, earl of Cumberland (afterwards a great ſailor), married him to this lady, by whom he left no iſſue but that ſingular dame Anne, counteſs of Dorſet, Pembroke, and Montgomery.

83. William, lord Ruſſel, ætat 27, anno 1580. Vide No. 61.

84. Francis, ſon of the preceding, and afterwards earl of Bedford. Vide No. 8.

85. Francis, firſt of the name, and ſecond earl of Bedford. Vide No. 75.

86. Rogers, comptroller to queen Elizabeth, ætat 69, 1561. Hentzner mentions him as obtaining permiſſion from the lord chamberlain to enter the preſence chamber, and ſee her majeſty go to chapel in ſtate.

87. Wriothesley, duke of Bedford. Query, Whether the ſecond or third duke?

88. Mary

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88. Mary, queen of England, daughter of Henry VIII.

89. Lady Catherine Howard, youngeſt daughter of Thomas, earl of Suffolk, lord treaſurer, wife of William Cecil, ſecond earl of Saliſbury, and ſiſter of Frances, counteſs of Eſſex and Somerſet.

90. Lady Ann Ayſcough, daughter of lord admiral Clinton, earl of Lincoln, by Urſula his ſecond wife, married to William, ſon of ſir Francis Ayſcough, of Kelſey, Lincolnſhire. She was ſiſter of Frances, wife of Giles, lord Chandos, who was father of Catherine, wife of Francis, earl of Bedford, anno 1577.

91. Lady Elizabeth Fitzgerald, daughter of the earl of Kildare, and third wife of lord admiral earl of Lincoln. This lady was the earl of Surry's fair Geraldini. Vide Royal and Noble Authors.

92. Jane Seymour, queen of Henry VIII. Not ſo fortunate by her exaltation as by her early death. When beauty was the ſole recommendation to the throne, no wonder the tenure was frail.

93. Philip and Mary. When two ſuch ſanguinary hands were joined, it was lucky for mankind that no iſſue was the conſequence. The intrepidity of the Tudors, united with the unprincipled policy of Charles V. and Philip, might have depopulated Europe, and formed as deſolate a waſte of empire as that of the Ottomans.

94. Edward Courtenay, earl of Devonſhire. See an account of him and of this portrait in the Anecdotes of Painting.

95. Sir Philip Sydney. The flower of chivalry in the reign of Elizabeth, and ſo deſervedly a favourite character, that one writer gave offence by only queſtioning, two hundred years after ſir Philip's death, whether all the encomiums ſhowered on him by his cotemporaries, might not have been a little overſtrained.

96. Lady Iſabella Bennet, ſole daughter and heireſs of the earl of Arlington, wife of the firſt duke of Grafton, and afterwards of ſir Thomas Hanmer, ſpeaker of the houſe of commons. Her portrait is among the beauties of Hampton-Court.

97. James, duke of Monmouth. He was born for a court, not for a crown, as he poſſeſſed only the outward graces that contribute, by captivating the vulgar to ruviſh a diadem. James II. was not to be dazzled from his throne by his brilliant nephew, though ſo eaſily driven from it by his wiſer ſon-in-law.

98. James Hay, earl of Carliſle. I ſuppoſe huſband of lady Margaret Ruſſel, mentioned at No. 46.

99. Sir Edward Stradling, of St. Donat's, in Glamorganſhire, was married in 1566, was afterwards knighted, and he or his ſon was made a baronet by James I.

100. Lady Evelyn Leviſon, youngeſt daughter of John, firſt earl Gower. She was married firſt to John Fitzpatrick, firſt earl of Upper Oſſory, and ſecondly to Richard Vernon, eſq.

101. Rachael, lady Ruſſel, daughter of lord treaſurer Southampton, firſt married to lord Vaughan, ſon of the earl of Carberry, and afterwards to the juſtly admired lord Ruſſel. The excellent and undiſturbed ſenſe, and unſhaken firmneſs, of this virtuous heroine, while ſhe aſſiſted her lord during his trial, was proved not to be the reſult of inſenſibility, miſcalled philoſophy, but a command over the moſt afflicted tenderneſs as long as ſhe could be of uſe to him, and while ſhe might have diſtreſſed his affection—for the firſt

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firſt moment he was no more, ſhe gave ſuch inceſſant looſe to her tears as to be ſuppoſed to have brought on her blindneſs—ſtill with ſuch devout ſubmiſſion, that ſhe bore the inſolent reproofs of a bigotted chaplain devoted to the court, who augmented her rational grief by ſcarce oblique condemnation of the principles to which her deareſt lord had fallen a ſacrifice. Her ladyſhip's letters, which have been publiſhed, are a compound of reſigned piety, never-ceaſing grief, ſtrong ſenſe, and true patriotiſm, with ſtrict attention to all domeſtic duties. She lived to a great age, revered almoſt as a ſaint herſelf, and venerated as the relict of the martyr to liberty and the conſtitution.

102. Elizabeth Howland, wife of Wriothesley, ſecond duke of Bedford, with her children. Wriothesley, the third duke, and lord John, afterwards fourth duke; lady Rachel, ducheſs of Bridgewater, and lady Elizabeth, counteſs of Eſſex.

103. Mr. Howland, of Streatham, father of the ducheſs Elizabeth.

104. Elizabeth, queen of Bohemia, daughter of James I.; a lady whoſe graces, heroiſm, or diſtreſſes, perhaps all, attracted the homage of the paladins of that age, but could infuſe no ſpirit into that timorous and negotiating dupe her father, who cheriſhed royalty too much to forgive his ſon-in-law for ravaiſhing a crown from another monarch, though he could not keep it. This momentary queen, after beſtowing, with unimpeached virtue, a numerous iſſue on her wandering huſband, in her widowhood rewarded her martial ſervant, the earl of Craven, with her fair hand; and lived to ſee the reſtoration of her nephew, though little ſuſpecting that her youngeſt daughter would be named ſucceſſor to her great niece Anne, and be appointed to wear the crown of the twice dethroned Stuarts.

105. Prince Naſſau.

106. Lady Diana Spencer, youngeſt daughter of Charles, earl of Sunderland, and firſt wife of John, duke of Bedford.

107. Sir Greville Verney, firſt huſband of lady Diana Ruſſel, daughter of William, earl of Bedford.

108. King Charles the firſt.

109. Lady Anne Ruſſel, eldeſt daughter, and lady Diana Ruſſel, ſecond daughter of William, earl (and then duke of) Bedford, firſt married to ſir Greville Verney, and then to William, lord Allington.

110 Sir Robert Bynghm. I can find nothing of *ſir Robert*: if an old picture, it probably repreſents ſir Richard Bynghm, who was a conſiderable man in the reign of queen Elizabeth.

111. Lady Caroline Ruſſel, only daughter of John, duke of Bedford, and wife of George Spencer duke of Marlborough.

Finiſhed Sept. 29, 1791.

Account of Dearths and Famine. From a ſcarce and curious Pamphlet, entitled, "Artaxerxes; or, A new Booke declaring the Aſſiſe or Weight of Bread by Troy, and Averdupois Weights, and containing divers Orders and Articles made and ſet forth by the Lords and others of his Majeſties moſt honble Privie Councell. 4to. Printed by R. Biſhop and Edward Griffine, and are to be ſold at the Stationers Shops, or at the Chamber of John Benketham, the Compoſer.

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poſer, in Simons Inn, in Chancerie Lane."

THE courſe of penning introductive preambles (frequent with writers) for brevities ſake now avoided, albeit I might (and not impertinently) in this caſe treat of Gods three ſeverall rods or arrowes, whereof his divine Majeſtie by adminiſtration of the prophet *Gad*, afforded free election to king *David*, and wherewith at ſundry times he hath ſore afflicted this our land of *Canaan*, where the diuturnall miſerie of peſtilence being with us not fully overpaſt, and famine, as alſo the ſword or worſe inſtruments of warre, inceſſantly working the moſt lamentable damage and deſtruction of our friends and neighbours, move me to remember that prudent admonition of *Horace* to *Lollius*, *lib.* 1. *Epiſt.*

Eſquid
Ad te poſt paulò ventura pertinet ſentis?
Nam tua res agitur, paries cùm proximus ardet.

That is,

Art thou inſenſible, or doſt not ſee
That dangers will ere long encounter thee?
For when thy neighbour's houſe in flames doth ſhine,
Then it behoves thee to have care of thine.

My purpoſe is only to ſet before your eyes (Chriſtian readers) the famines and dearths, which I find upon record, England hath ſuſtained, together with the particular occaſions thereof, to the end that thoſe whom it moſt concernes may be put in minde of the wayes under God, to prevent the like future calamities. Beginning in the reigne of *William* the conquerour, *viz.*

An. Dom. 1069.

In the third and fourth yeare of the ſaid king, by meanes of the *Normans* waſting of *England* in *Northumberland*, and other places in the yeare precedent, ſuch a dearth encreaſed through all *England*, eſpecially *Northumberland*, and the countries next adjoyning, that men were glad to eat horſes, catts, dogges, and mans fleſh, for all the land lying betweene *Durham* and *Yorke*, lay waſte without inhabitants and people to till the ground, for the ſpace of nine yeares, except only the territory of Saint *John* of *Beverlake*.

Of this you may read at large in the ſaid Chronicle.

An. Dom. 1085.

In the 21 yeare of *W. C.* was a great dearth of cattell, and ſore diſtemperature of the aire, ſo that many men died of feavers, and afterwards many others died of famine.

An. Dom. 1093.

In the ſixt yeare of *William Ruffus*, was a great famine, and afterwards ſo great a mortality, that the living were ſcarce able to bury the dead.

An. Dom. 1112.

In the 13 yeare of king *Henry* the firſt, was a ſharp winter, great dearth and mortality of men, with murraine of beaſts of the field, and alſo of the houſe, and a great deſtruction of fowle.

An. Dom. 1124.

In the 23 yeare of the ſame king, by meanes of changing the coine, all things became very deere, whereof an extreme famine did ariſe, and afflict the multitude of the people even to death.

An. Dom. 1177.

In the three and twentith yeare of *Henry* the ſecond, the black book containing the orders and rules of the exchequer was compiled; wherein among other things is mentioned,

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that for provision of the king's houſhold from the time of king *Henry* the firſt, the officers of the kings houſhould reducing their victualls into an eſtimate of money, did value for a meaſure of wheat to make bread for 100 men, xijd. for the carcaſſe of a fat ox, xijd. for a fat ſheepe 4d. and for the provinder of twenty horſes 4d.

An. Dom. 1205.

In the ſeventh yeare of king *John*, began a great froſt, which continued till the 22 of March, ſo that the ground could not be tilled, whereof it came to paſſe, that in the ſummer following, a quarter of wheat was ſold in many places of *England* for a mark (which for the more part in the daves of king *Henry* the ſecond, was ſold twelve pence) and a quarter of beanes or peas for a noble, and a quarter of oates for 3s. 4d. which were wont to be ſold for 4d.

An. Dom. 1222.

In the ſeventh yeare of *Henry* the third, on holy rood day was a great thunder and lightning throughout all *England*, and ſuch great flouds of water followed, with great winds and tempeſts, which continued till Candlemas, that the yeare following, wheat was ſold for 12s. the quarter, which is as much at 36s. at this day.

An. Dom. 1234.

18 *Henry* the 3. Was a great froſt at Chriſtmaſſe, which deſtroyed the corne in the ground, and the roots of hearbs in the gardens, continuing till Candlemaſſe without any ſnow, ſo that no man could plough the ground, and all the yeare after was unſeaſonable weather, ſo that bareneſſe of all things enſued, and many poore folks dyed for want of victualls. the rich being ſo bewitched with avarice, that they could yeeld them no reliefe. Amongſt whom *Walter Gray*, then archbiſhop of York, was not leaſt covetous, of whom it is recorded that his corne being then 5 yeares old, hee doubting the ſame to be ſpoiled with vermine, did command that it ſhould be delivered to the huſbandmen that inhabited his mannours, upon condition, that they ſhould pay him the like quantity of new corn after harveſt, but would give none to the poore for God's ſake, whereupon it came to paſſe, that when men came to a great ſtack of his corne, which ſtood neere the towne of *Rippon*, there appeared in the ſheaves all over the ſame, the heads of worms, ſerpents, and toads, beſides, a voice was heard out of the corn-ſtow, ſaying, *Lay no hands on the corne, for the archbiſhop and all that hee hath is the devills.* To conclude, the bailiffes were forced to build a high wall round about the corne, and then to ſet it on fire, leſt the venemous wormes ſhould have gotten out and poyſoned the corne in other places.

How this biſhop died I have not read, and whether he went to God or the devill, it is not for me to determine.

An. Dom. 1248.

32 *Henry* 3. By reaſon of embaſing the coine a great penury followed.

An. Dom. 1258.

43 *Henry* 3. A great dearth followed the wet yeare paſt, for a quarter of wheat was ſold for 15s. and 20s. but the worſt was in the end, there could be none found for money, where-through many poor people were conſtrained to eat barks of trees, and horſe fleſh, but many ſtarved for want of food, twenty thouſand (as it was ſaid) in *London*.

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An. Dom. 1288.

In the ſixteenth yeare of *Edward* the firſt, the ſummer was ſo exceeding hot, that many died through the extremity thereof, and yet wheat was ſold in *England* for three ſhillings foure pence the quarter.

An. Dom. 1289.

1 *Edward* 1. Great haile fell in *England*, and after enſued great raine, that the yeare following wheat was raiſed from 3d. the buſhel to 16d. and ſo encreaſed yearely, till it was ſold for 2s. 6d. the buſhell.

An. Dom. 1295.

In the 23-yeare of *Edward* the firſt, the king cauſed all the monaſteries in England to be ſearched, and the money found in them to be brought up to *London*. Hee alſo ſeiſed into his hands all their lay fees, becauſe they refuſed to pay him ſuch a tax as hee demanded. Moreover, hee cauſed the woll and leather to be ſtayed in *England*, and there followed great dearth of corne and wine.

An. Dom. 1298.

25 *Edward* 1. Was a great famine in *England*, chiefly want of wine, ſo that the ſame could ſcarcely be had to miniſter the communion in the church.

An. Dom. 1299.

27 *Edward* 1. An act of common counſell was made for prices of victuals to be ſold at *London* by conſent of the king, and nobility, *viz.* a fat cock for 1d. ob. two pullets 1d. ob. a fat capon 2d. ob. a gooſe 4d. a mallard 1d. ob. a partridge 1d. ob. a pheaſant 4d. a heron 6. a plover 1d. a ſwan 3s. a crane 12d. two woodcocks 1d. ob. a fat lamb from Chriſtmaſſe to Shrovetide 6d. and all the yeare after for 4d.

An. Dom. 1314.

In the eight yeare of king *Edward* the ſecond, the price of victualls being ſo exceſſive, that the common people were not able to live. By parliament at *London*, 3. *Feb.* it was ordained, and the kings writs were publiſhed for prices of victualls not to exceed as followeth, *viz.* an ox ſtalled or corne fed, 24s. a graſſe fed ox, 16s. a fat ſtalled cow, 12s. another 10s. a fat mutton corne fed, or whoſe woll is well growne, 20d. another fat mutton ſhorne, 14d. a fat hog of two years old, 3s. 4d. a fat gooſe, 2d. ob. in the citie, 3d. a fat capon, 2d. in the citie, 2d. ob. a fat hen, 1d. in the citie, 1d. ob. two chickens, 1d. in the citie, 1d. ob. four pidgions, 1d. in the citie, three 1d. 24 eggs, 1d. in the citie, 20, &c. Nevertheleſſe, all things were ſold deerer than before; no fleſh could be had, capons and geeſe were not to be found, eggs were hard to come by, ſheepe died of the rott, ſwine were out of the way, a quarter of wheat, beanes, and peas, was ſold for 20s. of malt for a mark, of ſalt, for 35s.

An. Dom. 1315.

8 *Edward* 2. The king in parliament at *London*, revoked the proviſions before made for ſelling of victualls, and permitted all men to make the beſt of their owne. Nevertheleſſe, the dearth increaſed through the abundance of raine that fell in harveſt, ſo that a quarter of wheat was ſold before Midſummer for 30s. and after for 40s.

There followed hereupon a grievous mortalitie of people, ſo that the living might hardly bury the dead. The beaſts and cattle alſo through corruptneſſe of the graſſe whereon they fed, died. Horſe fleſh was accounted great delicates: the poore ſtole fat dogs to eat; *thoſe dogs became fat by feeding on the beaſts and*

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rattell that died; some others in hidden places did mitigate their hunger with the flesh of their owne children. The thieves that were in prison, did pluck in peeces those that were newly brought in amongst them, and greedily devour'd them halfalive.

The Londoners, the same yeare considering that wheat was much consumed by the converting thereof into mault, ordained, that from thenceforth it should bee made of other graine, and also that a gallon of the better ale should be sold for 3 halfe pence, and of small ale for one penny, not above.

The king according to the statute of *London*, sent his writs through the realme, commanding, that in cities, boroughes, townes, and villages, as well within the liberties as without, a gallon of ale should bee sold for one penny. And that from thenceforth, no wheat should be made into mault, which if he had not the sooner caused to be proclaimed, the greatest part of the people should have perished through famine.

An. Dom. 1317.

10 *E.* 2. The harvest was early, so that all the corne was inned before saint *Giles* day, being the first of September, a bushell of wheat which before was sold for 10s. was then sold for 10 pence; and a bushell of oates which before was sold for 8 shil. was then sold for 8 pence.

An. Dom. 1329.

In the third yeare of Edw. the third, a statute was made prohibiting the importation of wheat, rye, or barly into this realme, unlesse the price of wheat exceeded 6 shil. 8 pence the quarter, of rye 4 shil. of barly 3 shil. at that port or place where the same should bee brought in, upon pain of forfeiture thereof.

An. Dom. 1330.

4 *E.* 3. The summer was so wet with abundance of rain, that the corne could not ripen; so that in many places they began not harvest until Michaelmasse, the house of *Craxton* got not in their wheat till Alhallontide, and their peas not before saint *Andrewes* tide. The monks on Alhollanday and Martinmas day were served with peas greene in the cods, in stead of peares and apples.

An. Dom. 1353.

27. *E.* 3. The dearth of corne by them of *Ireland*, and the *Irishmen* that brought in corne to sell unto divers havens of this realme, was asswaged to the great reliefe of the people.

An. Dom. 1358.

E. 3. A great dearth with pestilence happened in *England*, which was called the second pestilence.

An. Dom. 1369.

43. *E.* 3. Was a great dearth of corne, so that a bushell of wheat at *London* was sold for 2 shil. 6 pence, of barley for 20 pence, of oates for 12 pence.

The occasion of this dearth might bee supposed the excessiveneese of a feast in the yeare before, where the meats that were brought from the tables, would sufficiently have served ten thousand men.

An. Dom. 1379.

In the third yeare of *Richard* the second, a bushel of wheat was sold for 6 pence, a gallon of white wine for 6 pence, of red for 4 pence.

An. Dom. 1387.

10 *Rich.* 2. In the beginning of the yeare, at *Leicester*, 100 quarters of barly were sold for 100 shillings.

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An. Dom. 1291.

15 *R.* 2. Dearth of corne now almoſt continued for two yeares, whereby it came to paſſe, that when the time of fruits, as nutts, apples, plummes, peares, &c. was come, many poore people through overfeeding thereof, died of the flux. And if the commendable care of *Adam Baume*, then maior of *London*, had not relieved the commons, who continually provided, that from the parts beyond the ſeas, corne was brought to London to the reliefe of the whole realme, where otherwiſe without donbt neither had the country ſufficed the citie, nor the citie ſuccoured the country.

To the furtherance of which good work in relieving the poore; the maior and citizens of *London* took out of the orphans cheſt in their Guildhall, 2000 marks to buy corne and other victualls from beyond the ſeas, and the aldermen, each of them layd out 20 pound, to the like purpoſe of buying corn, which was beſtowed in divers places, where the poore might buy at an appointed price, and ſuch as lacked money to pay downe, did put in ſurety to pay in the yeare following, in which yeare, when harveſt came, the fields yeelded plentifull increaſe, and ſo the price of corne began to decreaſe.

An. Dom. 1438.

In the yeere of *Henry* the ſixt, by meanes of great tempeſts, unmeaſurable windes and raines, there aroſe ſuch a ſcarcitie, that wheat was ſold in ſome places for 2 ſhillings 6 pence the buſhell.

An. Dom. 1439.

18 *Hen.* 6. Wheat was ſold at *London* for 3 ſhillings the buſhell, mault at 13 ſhillings the quarter, and oates at 8 pence the buſhell; which cauſed men to eate beanes, peas, and barley, more than in an hundred yeeres before; wherefore *Stephen Browne*, then maior, ſent into *Pruſe* and cauſed to be brought to *London* many ſhips laden with rye, which did much good: for bread-corne was ſo ſcarce in *England*, that poore people made them bread of ferne rootes.

An. Dom. 1454.

32. *Hen.* 6. Wheat and other graine were in ſuch plentie, that a quarter of wheat was commonly ſold for 12 pence or 14 pence; of mault, for 16 or 17 pence at the moſt. A certaine farmer dwelling in *Cruſe Royſie*, or *Roſie* town in *Hertfordſhire*, ſold 20 quarters of wheat for 20 ſhillings.

An. Dom. 1486.

In the ſecond yeere of *Henry* the ſeventh, wheat was ſold at 3 ſhillings the buſhell; and bay-ſalt at the like price.

An. Dom. 1491.

7. *H.* 7. Wheat was ſold at *London* for 20 pence the buſhell, which was accounted a great dearth.

An. Dom. 1494.

10. *H.* 7. Wheat was ſold at the like price.

An. Dom. 1521.

In the thirteenth yeere of *Henry* the eight, was a dearth of corne (with peſtilence), for wheat was ſold at *London*, for 20 ſhillings the quarter.

An. Dom. 1526.

18. *H.* 8. In *November*, *December*, and *Januarie*, fell ſuch abundance of raine, that thereof enſued great flouds, which deſtroyed corne-fields, paſtures, and b aſts. Then was it drie till the twelfth of *April*; and from that time, it rained every day and night, till the third of *June*;

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whereby corne failed fore in the yeere following.

An. Dom. 1527.

19. *H.* 8. Such ſcarcitie of bread was at *London*, and throughout *England*, that many dyed for want thereof. The king ſent to the citie, of his owne proviſion, ſix hundred quarters; the bread carts then coming from *Stratford* towards *London*, were met at the *Miles end* by a great number of citizens, ſo that the maior and ſheriffes were forced to goe and reſcue the ſame, and ſee them brought to the markets appointed. Wheat being then at 15 ſhillings the quarter. But ſhortly after, the merchants of the *Stiliard* brought from *Danſke*, ſuch ſtore of wheat and rye, that it was better cheape at *London*, then in any other part of the realme.

An. Dom. 1553.

In the firſt yeere of queen *Mary*, at her majeſties coming to the crowne, victuals were ſo plentifull, that a barrell of beere was ſold for ſix pence, with the caſke, and foure great loaves of bread for one penny.

An. Dom. 1557.

5. *Mary.* Wheat was ſold before harveſt, for foure marks the quarter; but after harveſt, for five ſhillings: ſo that a penny loafe, which weighed in *London* the laſt yeere but 11 ounces *Troy*, weighed now 26 ounces *Troy*.

An. Dom. 1558.

6. *Mary.* Corne roſe to 14 ſhillings the quarter.

An. Dom. 1573.

About *Lammas*, wheat was ſold at *London* for 3 ſhillings the buſhell; but ſhortly after, it was rayſed to 4 ſhillings, 5 ſhillings, 6 ſhillings, and before *Chriſtmas*, to a noble, and 7 ſhillings; which ſo continued long after; yet there was no want to him that wanted not money.

An. Dom. 1586.

In the 29 yeere of queene *Elizabeth*, about *Januarie*, her majeſtie obſerving the generall dearth of corne, and other victuals, growne partly through the unſeaſonableneſſe of the yeere then paſt, and partly through the uncharitable gredineſſe of corne-maſters, but eſpecially through the unlawfull and overmuch tranſporting of graine in forreine parts; by the advice of her moſt honourable privy councell, publiſhed a proclamation, and a booke of orders to be taken by the juſtices, for reliefe of the poore; notwithſtanding all which, the exceſſive prices of graine, ſtill encreaſed; ſo that wheat in meale was ſold at *London* for 8 ſhillings the buſhell, and in ſome other parts of this realme above that price.

An. Dom. 1594.

36. *Eliz.* In *May* fell many great ſhowers of raine, but in *June* and *July* much more, for it commonly rained day and night till ſaint *James* eve: and on S. *James* day in the afternoone it began againe, and continued for two dayes together. Notwithſtanding, there followed a faire harveſt. But in *September*, great raines rayſed high waters, ſuch as ſtayed the carriages, and bare downe bridges, as at *Cambridge*, *Ware*, and elſewhere. Alſo graine grew to be of a great price, a buſhell of wheat at 6, 7, or 8 ſhillings, &c. which dearth happened more through the merchants overmuch tranſporting, than the unſeaſonableneſſe of the weather paſt.

An. Dom. 1595.

37 *Eliz.* By the late tranſportations of graine into forreine parts, the ſame was here growne to an exceſſive

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deare price, as in ſome parts of this realme, from 14 ſhillings to 4 marks the quarter, and more, as the poore did feele; and all other things whatſoever were made to ſuſtain man, were likewiſe rayſed, without all conſcience and reaſon. For remedie whereof, our merchants brought back from *Danſke* much rye and wheat, but paſſing deere; though not of the beſt, yet ſerving the turne in ſuch extremitie. Some prentices and other young people about the citie of *London*, being pinched of their victuals more than they had been accuſtomed, tooke butter from the market folkes in *Southwarke*, paying but three pence, where the owners would not afford it under five pence by the pound. For which diſorder, the ſaid young men were puniſhed on the the 27 of *June*, by whipping, ſetting on the pillorie, and long impriſonment.

An. Dom. 1596.

37. *Eliz.* In *Auguſt*, *September*, *October*, *November*, fell great ſtore of raine, and wheat in meale was ſold at *Loudon* for 10 ſhillings the buſhell; yet through the diligent carefulneſſe of *Thomas Skinner*, then lord maſor, proviſion was made for corne to be brought from *Danſke*, and other the eaſt countreyes, by our merchants; unto whom was granted cuſtome and ſtowage free, as alſo to make their own price, or tranſport to any part of this realme. Whereupon it followed, were the price never ſo high, this citie never wanted corne for their money.

An. Dom. 1597.

And 39. *Eliz.* the price of wheat in *London* markets fell from 13 ſhillings to 10 ſhillings the buſhell.

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MISCELLANEOUS ESSAYS.

On the indelible Character of the Prieſthood. From Campbell's Lectures on Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory.

BESIDE what may be ſaid to be conferred viſibly and intelligibly in all regular ordinations, the charge of a certain diſtrict, in what regards ſpiritual matters, and the overſight of the people, there muſt be ſomething inviſible and unintelligible, which is nevertheleſs the principal, elſe all thoſe looſe ordinations would be mere nullities. This myſterious ſomething they called the *character* impreſſed, which was no ſooner diſcovered or deviſed, than it conſtituted the eſſence of the ſacrament; the other particulars relating to the charge of a flock, which to an ordinary underſtanding might appear to be the whole, were then found to be but circumſtances.

Would we then track this nonſenſe to its ſource? We muſt dip, or rather dive, into the futile logomachies of the ſchoolmen; for it will be found to be the genuine production of the darkly ſubtle metaphyſico-ſcholaſtical theology of the middle ages. Nothing could be idler than to attempt the refutation of a dogma, for which a veſtige of evidence has never been produced. But were the buſineſs of refuting incumbent upon us, a little further examination of the ſubject, and of the opinions that have been advanced concerning it, would entirely ſupercede the neceſſity.

"Two puzzling queſtions have been moved on the ſubject, which were hotly agitated, but not ſolved, in the council of Trent, where it was thought neceſſary, however, to make a decree, affirming the character in oppoſition to one of the Lutheran articles denying it. One queſtion is, wherein it conſiſts; the other, whereon it is imprinted. In anſwer to the former, relating to the quiddity of the character, as theſe ſophiſters love to expreſs it, it has been obſerved, firſt negatively, that it cannot be an infuſion of grace, as of faith, hope, or charity, becauſe, ſay our profound diſquiſitors, all the ſeven ſacraments confer grace, whereas it is only the three that cannot be repeated, the unreiterable, which imprint a character; beſides, it can be neither grace nor virtue for this other reaſon: both theſe may be loſt, whereas the character is indelible. As little can it be a particular qualification, which fits the perſon for the diſcharge of the duties of the office, for a man may become totally unqualified by age and infirmities, or he may unqualify himſelf by vice. Beſides, it has never been denied that perſons, very ill qualified, have been ordained,

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damned, and never appeared one jot better qualified after their ordination than before. It could not be the gift of juſtification, becauſe this is what the impenitent, in mortal ſin, does not receive in any ſacrament; and yet an impenitent, in mortal ſin, may be ordained and receive the character. But to conſider the thing poſitively, there were who maintained that it was a quality. Among thoſe there were four different opinions, according to the four ſorts of qualities diſtinguiſhed in the ſchools. Some affirmed that it is a ſpiritual power, others a habit or diſpoſition, others a ſpiritual figure; nor was the notion that it is a ſenſible metaphorical quality without its advocates. Some would have it to be a real relation, others a fabric of the mind; though it was by no means clear how far theſe conſidered it as removed from nothing.

As to the ſecond queſtion, the *uſe* of the character, there was no leſs variety of ſentiments than about the firſt, ſome placing it in the eſſence of the ſoul, others in the underſtanding; ſome in the will, and others more plauſibly in the imagination; others even in the hands and the tongue; but, by the general voice, the body was excluded. So that the whole of what they agreed in amounts to this, that in the unreiterable ſacraments, as they call them, ſomething, they know not what, is imprinted, they know not how, on ſomething in the ſoul of the recipient, they know not where, which never can be deleted.

In regard to the indelibility, all agreed, inſomuch, that though a biſhop, prieſt, or deacon, turn heretic or ſchiſmatic, deiſt or atheiſt, he ſtill retains the character, and though not a Chriſtian man, he is ſtill a Chriſtian biſhop, prieſt, or deacon; nay, though he be degraded from his office, and excommunicated, he is, in reſpect of the character, ſtill the ſame. Though he be cut off from the church, he is ſtill a miniſter in the church. In ſuch a ſituation to perform any of the ſacred functions, would be in him a deadly ſin, but theſe, would be equally valid as before. Thus he may not be within the pale of the church himſelf, and yet be in the church a miniſter of Jeſus Chriſt. He may openly and ſolemnly blaſpheme God, and abjure the faith of Chriſt; he may apoſtatize to Judaiſm, to Mahometiſm, or to Paganiſm, he ſtill retains the character. He may even become a prieſt of Jupiter, or a prieſt of Baal, and ſtill continue a prieſt of Jeſus Chriſt. The character, ſay the ſchoolmen, is not cancelled in the damned, but remains with the wicked to their diſgrace and greater confuſion; ſo that even in hell they are the miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt, and the meſſengers of the new covenant. Nor is it cancelled in the bleſſed, but remains in heaven with them for their greater glory and ornament.

Letter of the Late Dr. Goldſmith, when about Twenty-five Years old, to a young Gentleman whom he had for a ſhort Time inſtructed in different Branches of Learning.

I HAVE thought it adviſeable, my dear young pupil, to adopt this method of giving my thoughts to you on ſome ſubjects which I find myſelf not well diſpoſed to ſpeak of in your preſence. The reaſon of this you will yourſelf perceive

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ceive in the courſe of reading this letter. It is diſagreeable to moſt men, and particularly ſo to me, to ſay any thing which has the appearance of a diſagreeable truth; and, as what I have now to ſay to you is entirely reſpecting yourſelf, it is highly probable that, in ſome reſpect or other, your view of things and mine may conſiderably differ.

In the various objects of knowledge, which I have had the pleaſure of ſeeing you ſtudy under my care, as well as thoſe which you have acquired under the various teachers who have hitherto inſtructed you, the moſt material branch of information which it imports a human being to know, has been entirely overlooked; I mean, the knowledge of yourſelf. There are indeed very few perſons who poſſeſs at once the capability and the diſpoſition to give you this inſtruction. Your parents, who alone are perhaps ſufficiently acquainted with you for the purpoſe, are uſually diſqualified for the taſk, by the very affection and partiality which would prompt them to undertake it. Your maſters, who probably labour under no ſuch prejudices, have ſeldom either ſufficient opportunities of knowing your character, or are ſo much intereſted in your welfare, as to undertake an employment ſo unpleaſant and laborious. You are as yet too young and inexperienced to perform this important office for yourſelf, or indeed to be ſenſible of its very great conſequence to your happineſs. The ardent hopes and the extreme vanity natural to early youth, blind you at once to every thing within and every thing without, and make you ſee both yourſelf and the world in falſe colours. This alluſion, it is true, will gradually wear away as your reaſon matures and your experience increaſes; but the queſtion is, What is to be done in the mean time? Evidently there is no plan for you to adopt but to make uſe of the reaſon and experience of thoſe who are qualified to direct you.

Of this, however, I can aſſure you, both from my own experience and from the opinions of all thoſe, whoſe opinions deſerve to be valued, that if you aim at any ſort of eminence or reſpectability in the eyes of the world, or in thoſe of your friends; if you have any ambition to be diſtinguiſhed in your future career for your virtues, or talents, or accompliſhments, this ſelf-knowledge of which I am ſpeaking is above all things requiſite. For how is your moral character to be improved, unleſs you know what are the virtues and vices which your natural diſpoſition is calculated to foſter, and what are the paſſions which are moſt apt to govern you? How are you to attain eminence in any talent or purſuit, unleſs you know in what particular way your powers of mind beſt capacitate you for excelling? It is therefore my intention, in this letter, to offer you a few hints on this moſt important ſubject.

When you come to look abroad into the world, and to ſtudy the different characters of men, you will find that the happineſs of any individual depends not, as you would ſuppoſe, on the advantages of fortune or ſituation, but principally on the regulation of his own mind. If you are able to ſecure tranquillity within, you will not be much annoyed by any diſturbance without. The great art of doing this conſiſts in a proper government of the paſſions.

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tions. In taking care that no propensity is suffered to acquire so much power over your mind as to be the cause of immoderate uneasiness, either to yourself or others, I insist particularly on this point, my dear young friend, because, if I am not greatly deceived, you are yourself very much disposed by nature to two passions, the most tormenting to the possessor, and the most offensive to others, of any which afflict the human race; I mean, pride and anger. Indeed, those two dispositions seem to be naturally connected with each other; for you have probably remarked, that most proud men are addicted to anger, and that most passionate men are also proud. Be this as it may, I can confidently assure you, that if an attempt is not made to subdue those uneasy propensities now, when your temper is flexible, and your mind easy of impression, they will most infallibly prove the bane and torment of your whole life. They will not only destroy all possibility of your enjoying any happiness yourself, but they will produce the same effect on those about you; and by that means you will deprive yourself both of the respect of others, and the approbation of your own heart; the only two sources from which can be derived any substantial comfort or real enjoyment.

It is moreover a certain principle in morals, that all the bad passions, but especially those of which we are speaking, defeat, in all cases, their own purposes; a position which appears quite evident on the slightest examination. For what is the object which the proud man has constantly in view? Is it not to gain distinction, and respect, and consideration among mankind? Now it is unfortunately the nature of pride to aim at this distinction, not by striving to acquire such virtues and talents as would really entitle him to it, but by labouring to exalt himself above his equals by little and degrading methods; by endeavouring, for example, to outvie them in dress, or show, or expense, or by affecting to look down with haughty superciliousness on such as are inferior to himself only by some accidental advantages for which he is no way indebted to his own merit. The consequence of this is, that all mankind declare war against him; his inferiors, whom he affects to despise, will hate him, and consequently will exert themselves to injure and depress him; and his superiors, whom he attempts to imitate, will ridicule his absurd and unavailing efforts to invade what they consider as their own peculiar province.

If it may with truth be said, that a proud man defeats his own purposes, the same may, with equal certainty, be affirmed of a man who gives way to violence of temper. His angry invectives, his illiberal abuse, and his insulting language, produce very little effect on those who hear him, and who, perhaps, only smile at his infirmities; but who can describe the intolerable pangs of vexation, rage, and remorse, by which the heart of a passionate man is successively ravaged? Alas! it is himself alone for whom the storm is pent up, who is torn by its violence, and not those against whom its fury is meant to be directed.

You will, I dare say, readily agree to the truth of all this; but you will perhaps, be at a loss to conceive what can be my reasons for applying it to you. My principal reasons for thinking

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thinking you subject to these unhappy failings are very cogent; and they are of such a nature, that it is peculiarly painful for me to state them. In a word, then, I have seen those hateful propensities govern you with such irresistible power, that they have overcome the strongest and most natural principle that can be supposed to reign in the heart of a young person; I mean, the duty and affection you owe your parents. Surely it could be no common failing, no light or trivial fault of temper, that could be sufficient to counteract the warmest feelings and strongest duties of a young mind! Duties and feelings so natural and so indispensible, that we justly conclude a young person who appears to be devoid of them can scarcely possess any other valuable quality. From such grounds, then, can you think me harsh or uncharitable, if I have formed such conclusions?

I have been urged to what I have said by an earnest wish for the improvement of your character, and particularly for the amelioration of your heart. In a future letter I shall pursue the subject, by endeavouring to give you some rules respecting the government and improvement of the understanding. I hope and believe that your conduct will be such as to render any future admonitions on the subjects of this letter entirely unnecessary.

I am, my dear pupil,

Yours affectionately, &c.

Original Letter from Dr. Samuel Johnson. Not published in his Works, or any Life of him.

March 17, 1752, O. S.

Dear Sir,

NOTWITHSTANDING the warnings of philosophers, and the daily examples of losses and misfortunes, which life forces upon us, such is the absorption of our thoughts in the business of the present day—such the resignation of our reason to empty hopes of future felicity, or such our unwillingness to foresee what we dread, that every calamity comes suddenly upon us, and not only presses as a burden, but crushes as a blow.

There are evils which happen out of the common course of nature, against which it is no reproach not to be provided. A flash of lightning intercepts the traveller in his way. The concussion of an earthquake heaps the ruins of cities upon their inhabitants. But other miseries time brings, though silently, yet visibly forward, by its own lapse, which yet approaches unseen, because we turn our eyes away, and they seize us unresisted, because we would not arm ourselves against them, by setting them before us.

That it is in vain to shrink from what cannot be avoided, and to hide that from ourselves which must sometimes be found, is a truth which we all know, but which all neglect, and perhaps none more than the speculative reasoner, whose thoughts are always from home, whose eye wanders over life, whose fancy dances after meteors of happiness kindled by itself, and who examines every thing rather than his own state.

Nothing is more evident, than that the decays of age must terminate in death. Yet there is no man (says Tully) who does not believe that he may yet live another year, and

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and there is none who does not, upon the same principle, hope another year for his parent or his friend; but the fallacy will be in time detected; the last year, the last day, will come: it has come, and is past.—"The life which made my own life pleasant is at an end, and the gates of death are shut upon my prospects."

The loss of a friend, on whom the heart was fixed, and to whom every wish and endeavour tended, is a state of desolation in which the mind looks abroad impatient of itself, and finds nothing but emptiness and horror. The blameless life, the artless tenderness, the native simplicity, the modest resignation—the patient sickness and the quiet death, are remembered only to add value to the loss—to aggravate regret for what cannot be amended—to deepen sorrow for what cannot be recalled.

These are the calamities by which Providence gradually disengages us from the love of life. Other evils fortitude may repel, or hope may mitigate; but irreparable privation leaves nothing to exercise resolution, or flatter expectation. The dead cannot return, and nothing is left us here but languishment and grief.

Yet such is the course of nature, that whoever lives long must outlive those whom he loves and honours. Such is the condition of our present existence, that life must one time lose its associations, and every inhabitant of the earth must walk downward to the grave alone and unregarded, without any partner of his joy or grief, without any interested witness of his misfortunes or success. Misfortunes indeed he may yet feel, for where is the bottom of the misery of man! but what is success to him, who has none to enjoy it? Happiness is not found in self-contemplation; it is perceived only when it is reflected from an other.

We know little of the state of departed souls, because such knowledge is not necessary to a good life. Reason deserts us at the brink of the grave, and gives no farther intelligence. Revelation is not wholly silent. 'There is joy among the angels in heaven over a sinner that repenteth.' And surely the joy is not incommunicable to souls disentangled from the body, and made like angels.

Let hope, therefore, dictate what revelation does not confute—that the union of souls may still remain; and that we, who are struggling with sin, sorrow, and infirmities, may have one part in the attention and kindness of those who have finished their course, and are now receiving the reward.

These are the great occasions which force the mind to take refuge in religion. When we have no help in ourselves, what can remain but that we look up to a higher and greater power? And to what hope may we not raise our eyes and hearts, when we consider that the greatest power is the best?

Surely there is no man who, thus afflicted, does not seek succour in the Gospel, which has brought life and immortality to light! The precepts of Epicurus, which teach us to endure what the laws of the universe make necessary, may silence, but not content us. The dictates of Zeno, who commands us to look with indifference on abstract things, may dispose us to conceal our sorrow, but cannot assuage it. Real

alleviation

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alleviation of the loss of friends, and rational tranquillity in the prospect of our own dissolution, can be received only from the promise of him in whose hands are life and death, and from the assurances of another and better state, in which all tears will be wiped from our eyes, and the whole soul shall be filled with joy. Philosophy may infuse stubbornness, but religion only can give patience.

Sam. Johnson.

Letter from a Repentant Highwayman to a Lady whom he had robbed.

Madam,

THE crime which I have committed is so unworthy my birth and education, and the confusion which I suffer in the reflection thereon so great, that I hope you will excuse my concealing from you my name and situation in life. You must undoubtedly have discovered, madam, from the violent agitation of mind I was under when I stopped your coach on Saturday evening, that it was my first attempt. I was withheld from presenting my pistol, both from my unwillingness to frighten you, and also from the apprehension lest my excessive tremor should have done you that mischief accidentally, which, I can assure you, was very far from the purpose of my heart: for both my weapons were destined against myself rather than any one else; and were worn as bosom friends, which, if I had been closely pursued, might have been my last resource to rescue me from the disgrace of public execution!

After I had committed the desperate act of robbing you, I made a feint as if I was going from town, but returned soon after with the design of sheltering myself in London. Having changed my dress to prevent discovery, and being asked at the turnpike "whether I had been robbed," I found that you had given the alarm, and that there would shortly be the strictest search after me. I made haste to London, and came in sight of your carriage just as it was entering town; and, as there was something so singularly humane and tender-hearted in the compassion which you shewed for my miseries, and those friendly admonitions which the sense of my danger awakened in your mind, I was prompted to dismount, and follow the coach at a distance, that I might discover where that lady dwelt who expressed so much benevolence and good-nature towards one so entirely undeserving of it; and I was reflecting within myself, that it would be very severe upon me to forfeit my life for one single act of imprudence, to which nothing but the most pinching necessity prompted me.

I was induced to make this application, from the hopes that the same reflection might operate sufficiently on the goodness of your heart to check the pursuit of me; or, if it should be my lot to be apprehended, to withhold you from appearing against me to take away my life.

I will not lay open to you the dismal scenes of misery I labour under, nor go through the series of misfortunes which have been working my ruin, and heaping up wretchedness upon wretchedness. Such a representation might, I fear, give you some uneasy thoughts, and disturb that peace of mind which it is my earnest prayer that Heaven may ever

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ever preserve uninterrupted to you. I shall only add, that, if you can but conceive even the faintest idea of those sharp agonies which the sense of guilt awakens in me, you will think that I have already suffered more than death; and if your forgiveness of me is as hearty as my repentance is sincere, you will be led to pity the man, though you detest the crime.

I beg a thousand pardons for trespassing so much upon your goodness, and for the liberty which I have taken of enquiring your name, which I was obliged to do, not knowing any other method of making this application to you without running the greatest hazard of detection.

Permit, madam, the most unfortunate of men, in testimony of his gratitude, for those good wishes which you expressed for him, to subscribe himself, your most highly obliged, and most obedient humble servant.

From the Gentleman's Magazine.

Nov. 7.

Mr. Urban,

AS peace is now (as good as) concluded between Great Britain and France, it may be a proper time to consider how we may best allay intestine commotions. Peace abroad is an imperfect blessing without peace at home. It is notorious that a war has been carried on for some years in this country between the sexes, occasioned by a contest for superiority. At the commencement of this unhappy dispute, the fair sex maintained that they were our equals in point of genius and talents; and that what was termed *sex* was merely a nominal difference in compliance with the customs of the world, or, as some asserted, in compliance with the tyrannical prejudices of man. On the other hand, we insisted that the superiority of talents was on our side; that there was not only a nominal but a real difference between men and women; and that it was insulting to suppose that any of us could arrive at the years of discretion without knowing the existence of such a difference, what it proceeded from, and to what it led.

The flames being thus kindled, war broke out; and animosities fierce and implacable raged from one end of the kingdom to the other. Such confusion of sex took place, that the most discerning could not say,

"Where ends the *woman*, or begins the *man*."

Abundance of the best ink in the kingdom was shed in the various engagements between the contending parties. The republic of letters felt the dreadful shock, and trembled under the horrors of war. The groans of the press were lamentable to hear: booksellers and bookbinders became poor and needy, while fishtioners and trunkmakers, like contractors and commissaries, accumulated immense wealth. "Their equipages shone like meteors, and their palaces rose like exhalations." Philosophers in petticoats brandished the pen; and were followed into the field of battle by historians, novelists, and poets, clad in muslins and tippets, threatning destruction to *man*-kind, and the re-establishment of the Amazonian age.

Courage and enterprize, however, are not beyond the reach of the fate of war. Some of these intrepid

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trepid heroines, deserted by their followers, perished by their own pens: others were tried by the monthly courts-martial, and broke: and some deserted to the enemy, enlisted as wives, or mistresses, and were never more heard of.

The contest, however, although apparently ended as far as regards more public engagements, is still carried on in private skirmishes. I should with a very bad grace propose terms of peace, if I did it not with the true spirit of peace; and I am unwilling, therefore, to recur too often or too pointedly, to the original causes of the dispute; yet what follows will not be easily understood, if I do not mention that one cause of the rupture was an assertion, that the men occupied all the places which women were intended to fill; that they usurped the province of milliners, mantua-makers, &c. &c. and while they insolently complained of the idleness of the fair-sex, at the same time deprived them of all means of industry.

I could have wished this complaint had been properly attended to. It had certainly some foundation, and a complaint which is not unreasonable, is a fair subject for redress. Instead of resisting it, we ought to meet it half way. All history proves that, when a reasonable request is refused, the plaintiffs are driven to demand those which are unreasonable. I say, sir, it was a most fatal delusion on our part, to turn contemptuously from such remonstrances. I was one of those who would have fortified Paternoster-row against the inroads of the enemy, but I would have left Bond-street open. I would have opposed the increase of straw bonnets, historians, philosophers in pelisses, and novelists in sprig muslins; but I could not conscientiously refuse them the "privileges of the most highly-favoured" shop-boards and counters. Thus I argued; and I deprecated the fatal consequences. I clearly foresaw what has exactly taken place. I foresaw that, when foiled at one weapon, they would take up another; anger is prolific, and indignation remarkably prone to invention: when disappointed in attacking our impregnables, they would soon sap the foundations of our ingenuity and industry, and effect by slow degrees what was impossible by a coup de main.

My fears accordingly have been realized: and at this moment, I would ask, whether the sex have not monopolized every article of useful manufacture heretofore the constant occupation and exclusive province of men; and whether they do not shew an industry in working, as well as ingenuity in inventing, which will soon make us repent our conduct towards them?

I am not now speaking of the poor: the poor of both sexes are pretty equal in their labours; but let any man look into genteel life, and see what progress has been lately made by the female branches of the family in all handicraft employments. I pass by music and painting; yet why should I pass them by? why not by way of digression, felicitate the fathers and mothers of so many female Sir Joshuas? what more pleasant than to hear one parent boast of his little Banti, and another bid you listen to a song from his little Billington? What a change, Mr Urban, in your time and mine! no more working a set of worsted commandments in a sampler! no more clothing the

map

map of England in purple and fine linen, with a beautiful green silk channel in cross-stitch! No, they who in our days were content to subscribe the belief with a needle and thread, and proud if they made a darn invisible, now prelude like Clementi, and compose like Haydn.

But, as already promised, I will pass all this, and come to the more direct interference with male occupations, which is every where visible. If we examine the furniture of a house, we shall find that all the ornamental part at least is the manufactory of fair and delicate hands. Look at the finely-worked bell-ropes in variegated worsted, with rose-tassels; the beautiful fire-side carpets and screens; and gilt and painted frames for flower-pots; the filagree tea caddies; the fruit baskets, &c. &c.; and we shall soon see that injuries inflicted by men-milliners are revenged with a heavy hand on the unoffending upholsterers and cabinet makers.

Nor are these the only employments usurped by the fair sex. Would they were restricted to such delicate luxuries as may be dispensed with! But they are advancing step by step towards the more robust articles. I know one lady who is an exceeding good carpenter, and has mended some pieces of furniture in such a manner as to prolong their use beyond all the hopes of the regular trade. Some excel as gardeners; and others are so expert in the exercise of the whip, as to threaten the annihilation of postillions and coachmen. Some have nearly killed themselves with the repairs of their houses; and declare, that if the work could be done *in-doors*, they never would employ a mason or bricklayer again.

These are alarming innovations, Mr. Urban; and deserving our most serious consideration. I may be told, indeed, that the distresses of the times have induced many persons to patch up the old, instead of buying new, and to do themselves what they formerly employed another to do for them. This is plausible, sir: but, if it be allowed its full force, what will it avail? the evil will not end with the return of peace and plenty. There is great reason to doubt whether habits of industry and ingenuity once acquired, from whatever motive, will be so easily shaken off as some people think. When we get into the knack of doing things for ourselves, one certain consequence is, that we think we do them better than any one else could. There is much vanity in beating a man at his own trade; and I never knew one of the female cabinet-makers of my acquaintance, who, after covering a foot-stool, or twisting a bell-rope, was not ready to snap her fingers at Seddons or Oakley. No, sir, I am afraid that as the sex have, in a moment of indignation and resentment, taken up the hammer, the chissel, the pallet, and the trowel, they may not be so easily prevailed upon them to lay them down again. In fact, sir, with sorrow I speak it, but why conceal it? I dread a declaration of independence.

Permit me now, Mr. Urban, to conclude with a piece of information which was in truth the cause of this whole epistle, and which I have from undoubted authority; and that is, it is now become the fashion for ladies to *amuse* themselves (*amuse*, as they call it, which is a mere pretence) with *making shoes!* These shoes, I am told, are made, that is to

say,

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ſay, the ſoles, of them, of flax twiſted in a particular manner, which I cannot deſcribe, but which makes a ſole at once firm, and repellent of wet. They alſo purchaſe leather (they will be tanners next) and cut it out for upper-leathers, and ſo waxing their thread, &c. they complete the whole proceſs of ſhoemaking. Was there ever a more direct infringement of the rights and privileges of the worſhipful company of cordwainers? and where will theſe things end? beſides turning our drawing-rooms into ſtalls and ſubſtituting cobbling for card-playing, how eaſy will the tranſition be from ſhoes to boots! and what then remains in the progreſs upwards, I leave to the candid conſideration of every tailor.

I have been told, indeed, that a pair of ſhoes made as above, will require upwards of a month (ſome ſay ſix weeks), and will be no more than eighteen-pence under the trade price. This, however, is little calculated to allay the fears of "good men."* All manufactures are ſlow in their infancy, and eighteen-pence will at leaſt pay an old ſhilling fare. On the other hand, let us conſider the advantages thoſe females will enjoy who bring their awl into notice. They will have for their cuſtomers all the gay and gallant young fellows about town; and, as the beſt things are liable to abuſe, perhaps many an abominable intrigue will be found to have no higher origin than a harmleſs heel tap. I am alarmed into this conſideration by the following paſſage from an antiquary, which I beg leave to tranſcribe:

"It may not be amiſs," ſays mine author, "to obſerve, that the word cobler had not originally that deſpicable meaning, that moſt now underſtand in it, but ſignified a coupler, or one who made and ſold things by pairs"†.

I conclude with recommending this paſſage to gentlemen who may be at preſent botching up a courtſhip, or have already been married to ſhoe-makers.

EVERY MAN TO HIS LAST.

* "To ſhoemakers. Good men may be employed by applying &c." An advertiſement frequently repeated in the papers.

† General deſcription of all trades, 1747, 12mo. p. 76.

POETRY.

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POETRY.

ODE *for the* NEW YEAR, 1801.

By H. J. PYE, *Esq. Poet-Laureat.*

FROM delug'd Earth's uſurp'd domain
When Ocean ſought his native bed,
Emerging from the ſhrinking main,
Rear'd many a mountain iſle its head,
Encircled with a billowy zone,
Fair Freedom mark'd them for her own:
"Let the vaſt Continent obey,
A ruthleſs maſter's iron ſway,
Uncheck'd by aught from pole to pole.
Where ſwoln Ambition's torrents roll;
Thoſe ſeats to tyrants I reſign,
Here be my bleſt abode, the iſland reign be mine."

Hating the ſhane where Freedom ſat enſhrined,
Graſping at boundleſs empire o'er mankind,
Behold from Suſa's diſtant towers
The Eaſtern deſpot ſends his mighty powers;
Grecia, thro' all her rocky coaſt,
Aſtoniſh'd views the giant hoſt;
Not the fam'd ſtrait by bleeding heroes barr'd,
Nor Cecrops' walls, her hallow'd altars guard;
While each bold inmate of the Iſles
On Inroad's baffled effort ſmiles,
From every port, with cheering ſound,
Swells the vindictive pæan round,
And Salamis, proud from her ſea-girt ſhore,
Sees o'er the hoſtile fleet th' indignant ſurges roar.

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Fiercer than Perſia's ſceptr'd Lord,
More numerous than th' embattled train
Whoſe thirſty ſwarms the ſea-broad rivers drain,
Lo! Gallia's plains diſgorge their maddening hord!
Wide o'er Europa's trembling lands
Victorious ſpeed the murderous bands:
Where'er they ſpread their powerful ſway,
Fell deſolation marks their way;
Unhurt, amid a warring world, alone
Britannia ſits ſecure, firm on her Iſland Throne.

When thunders roar, when lightnings fly,
When howling tempeſts ſhake the ſky;
Is more endear'd the ſheltering dome,
More ſweet the ſocial joys of home;
Fondly her eye, lo! Albion throws
On the tried partner of her weal and woes.
Each tie to cloſer union draws,
By mingled rights and mingled laws;
Then turns averſe from Gallia's guilty field,
And tears with generous pride the lillies from her ſhield.

Albion and Erin's kindred race,
Long as your ſiſter iſles the ſeas embrace;
Long as the circling tides your ſhores that lave,
Waft your united banners o'er the wave;
Wide thro' the deep commercial wealth to ſpread,
Or hurl deſtruction on th' oppreſſor's head!
May Heaven on each unconquer'd nation ſhower
Eternal concord, and increaſing power;
And as in Hiſtory's awful page
Immortal virtue ſhall proclaim
To every clime, thro' every age,
Imperial George's patriot fame,
That Parent care ſhall win her warmeſt ſmiles,
Which rear'd 'mid Ocean's reign the Emperor of the Iſles.

ODE *for his Majeſty's* BIRTH-DAY, 1801. *By the ſame.*

STILL, ſtill muſt War's diſcordant note
Uſurp the Muſe's votive lay—
Muſt the ſhrill clarion's brazen throat
Proclain our Monarch's NATAL DAY
While the ſtern Foe with haughty brow
Frowns on the Olive's ſacred bough,
Throws from his land the proffer'd gift of Peace,
Nor bids the raging ſtorm of Deſolation ceaſe!

O BRITAIN!

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O BRITAIN! not from abject fear,
Or pale miſtruſt, or weaken'd power,
Springs in thy breaſt the vow ſincere
Which wooes fair CONCORD's lenient hour:—
Uncheck'd by threats of vengeful foes,
Thy breaſt with warlike ardour glows;
Thy ſons with unabated force,
Right onward keep their daring courſe:
The chief who from CANOPUS' ſultry ſhore,
The burning meed of conqueſt bore,
Now thro' the Baltic's freezing ſurge,
Bids his bold prows their way reſiſtleſs urge;
And while BRITANNIA's enſign flies
Aloft in Hyperborean ſkies,
DENMARK aſtoniſh'd, from her threaten'd towers,
Yields up her naval boaſt to ALBION's happier powers.
And lo! where PHILIP's mightier ſon
Bade the proud City's riſing walls proclaim
To diſtant times their founder's name,
Freſh trophies by BRITANNIA's legions won:
When from the vet'ran bands of GALLIA's ſhore,
Their dauntleſs arms the blood-ſtain'd banner tore,
Which, like a baleful meteor ſpread,
To fields of death the enfuriate warrior's led:—
Yet, 'mid the deeds of endleſs fame,
Shall not a tear the dying victor claim?
No;—O'er his tomb with guardian wings
Hovering, the eternal pæan glory ſings,
Chaunting with note triumphant to the ſkies,
His name thro' ages lives, who for his country dies.
Enough of War! while BRITAIN ſees
Before HYGEIA's healing hand
The pallid demon of diſeaſe
Lead far away her ſickly band;
While to a Nation's fervent pray'r
The Arm Omnipotent to ſpare
Gives her ador'd, her patriot Lord
Again to life, to health reſtor'd,
To hail that day, to BRITAIN dear,
Selected from the circling year,
Which FAME ſhall ever mark the birth
Of regal duty and of private worth;
Strains that affection forms, that tranſport breathes,
The fragrant offerings join that June ambrofial wreathes!

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EPITAPH *on* Mr. T. A. Hamilton, *in the Church-yard of Newport-Pagnel. By the late* William Cowper, *Esq.*

PAUSE here, and think. A monitory rhyme
Demands one moment of thy fleeting time.
Conſult Life's ſilent clock, thy bounding vein:
Seems it to ſay—"Health here has long to reign?"
Haſt thou the vigour of thy youth?—an eye
That beams delight—a heart untaught to ſigh?—
Yet fear. Youth oftimes, healthful and at eaſe,
Anticipates a day it never ſees;
And many a tomb, like Hamilton's, aloud
Exclaims, "Prepare thee for an early ſhroud!"

PROLOGUE. *By a Gentleman of* Leiceſter.

On opening the Theatre, at Sydney, Botany Bay, to be ſpoken by the celebrated Mr. Barrington.

FROM diſtant climes o'er wide-ſpread ſeas we come,
Though not with much eclat or beat of drum,
True patriots all; for be it underſtood,
We left our country for our country's good;
No private views diſgrac'd our generous zeal,
What urg'd our travels was our country's weal;
And none will doubt but that our emigration
Has prov'd moſt uſeful to the Britiſh nation.

But, you inquire, what could our breaſts inflame
With this new paſſion for theatric fame?
What, in the practice of our former days,
Could ſhape our talents to exhibit plays?
Your patience, ſirs, ſome obſervations made,
You'll grant us equal to the ſcenic trade.

He, who to midnight ladders is no ſtranger,
You'll own will make an admirable Ranger.
To ſeek Macheath, we have not far to roam;
And ſure in Filch I ſhall be quite at home.
Unrival'd there, none will diſpute my claim
To high pre-eminence and exalted fame.

As oft on Gadſhill we have ta'en our ſtand,
When 'twas ſo dark you could not ſee your hand,

Some

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Some true-bred Falſtaff we may hope to ſtart,
Who, when well bolſter'd, well will play his part.
The ſcene to vary, we ſhall try in time
To treat you with a little pantomime.
Here light and eaſy Columbines are found,
And well-tried harlequins with us abound;
From durance vile our precious ſelves to keep,
We often had recourſe to th' flying leap;
To a black face have ſometimes ow'd eſcape,
And Hounſlow-Heath has prov'd the worth of crape.

But how, you aſk, can we e'er hope to ſoar
Above theſe ſcenes, and riſe to tragic lore?
Too oft, alas, we've forc'd th' unwilling tear,
And petrified the heart with real fear.
Macbeth a harveſt of applauſe will reap,
For ſome of us, I fear, have murder'd ſleep;
His lady too with grace will ſleep and talk.
Our females have been us'd at night to walk.

Sometimes, indeed, ſo various is our art,
An actor may improve and mend his part;
"Give me a horſe," bawls Richard, like a drone,
We'll find a man would help himſelf to one.
Grant us your favour, put us to the teſt,
To gain your ſmiles we'll do our very beſt;
And, without dread of future turnkey Lockits,
Thus, in an honeſt way, ſtill pick your pockets.

LINES,

Written upon ſeeing the unclaimed Corpſe of a Suicide expoſed on the Bank of a River.

By THOMAS CAMPBELL, *Eſq. Author of "The Pleaſures of Hope."*

BY ſtrangers left upon a lonely ſhore,
Unknown, unhonour'd, was the friendleſs dead:
Nor child to weep, nor widow to deplore,
There ever came to his unburied head!
All from his lonely habitation fled;
Nor will the lanthern'd fiſherman at eve
Launch on that water by the witches tower,
Where hellebore and hemlock ſeem to weave
Round its dark vaults a melancholy bower
For ſpirits of the dead, at night's enchanted hour!

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They dread to meet thee (poor unfortunate!),
Whose crime it was, on Life's unfinish'd road
To feel the step-dame buffeting of Fate,
And render back thy being's heavy load!
Ah! once, perhaps, the social passions glow'd
In thy devoted bosom, and the hand
That smote its kindred heart might yet be prone
To deeds of mercy! Who can understand
Thy many woes, poor suicide unknown!
He who thy sorrows gave shall judge of thee alone!

SONNET.

By R. B. SHERIDAN, *Esq.*

DRY be that tear, my gentlest love,
Be hush'd, that struggling sigh,
Not Season's day, nor fate shall prove
More fix'd—more true than I.
Hush'd be that sigh—be dry that tear,
Cease boding doubt—cease anxious fear.

Ask'st thou how long my vows shall stay
When all that's new is past?
How long—ah! Delia, can I say
How long my life will last?
Dry be that tear, be hush'd that sigh,
At least I'll love thee till I die!

And does that thought affect thee too,
The thought of Silvio's death.
That he, who only breathes for you,
Must yield that faithful breath?
Hush'd be that sigh, be dry that tear,
Nor let us lose our heaven here.

THE SORROWS OF SWITZERLAND.

From Jacobinism, a Poem.

HELVETIAN vales! where Freedom fix'd her sway,
And all the social virtues lov'd to stray;
Soft blissful seats of undisturb'd repose,
Rever'd, for ages, by contending foes,

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What envious demon, ranging to deſtroy,
Has marr'd your ſports, and clos'd your ſongs of joy!
What horrid yells the affrighted ear aſſail!
What ſcreams of terror load the paſſing gale!
See ruffian hordes with tiger-rage advance,
The ſhame of manhood, and the boaſt of France;
See trampled, cruſh'd, and torn, in luſtful ſtrife,
The loathing virgin, and indignant wife!
While wanton carnage ſweeps each crowded wood,
And all the mountain torrent's ſwell'd with blood!
Lo! where yon cliff projects its length of ſhade
O'er fields of death, ſome wounded chief is laid!
Around the deſolated ſcene he throws
A look, that ſpeaks unſufferable woes;
Then ſtarting from his trance of dumb deſpair,
Thus vents his anguiſh to the fleeting air:—
"Dear native hills, amidſt whoſe woodland maze
I paſs'd the tranquil morning of my days,
On whoſe green tops malignant planets ſcowl,
Where hell-hounds ravage, and the furies howl;
Though chang'd, deform'd, ſtill, ſtill ye meet my view,
Yet ſtill are left to hear my laſt adieu!
My friends, my children! gor'd with many a wound,
Whoſe mangled bodies ſtrew the enſanguin'd ground,
To parch and ſtiffen in the blaze of day,
Conſign'd to vultures, and to wolves a prey,
Your toils are paſt; no more ye wake to feel
Luſt's ſavage gripe, or Rapine's reeking ſteel!
And thou, to whom my wedded faith was given,
On earth my ſolace, and my hope in heaven,
Approv'd in manhood, as in youth ador'd,
Belov'd while living, as in death deplor'd,
O ſtay thy flight! around this dreary ſhore
A moment hover—and we part no more—
O'er thy poor corſe thy bleeding huſband hangs,
Counts all thy wounds, and feels thy lingering pangs—
O righteous Father! Thou, whoſe ſoſt'ring care
Suſtains creation, hear my dying prayer!
Look down, look down on this devoted land,
O'er my poor country ſtretch thy ſaving hand!
O let the blood, that, ſtreaming to the ſkies,
Still flows in torrents—let that blood ſuffice!
To thee the dreadful recompenſe belongs—
To thy juſt vengeance I conſign my wrongs;—
O vindicate the rights of Nature's ſway,
And ſweep the monſters from the bluſhing day!"

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THE CONSOLATIONS OF RELIGION.

By Bishop ATTERBURY. *Written in Exile.*

RELIGION, chiefeſt good to mortals giv'n,
At once our taſte of, and our guide to, Heav'n;
The chain that links us to the throne of Jove;
The golden ſteps by which we mount above;
The cheerful draught that gives the ſoul relief;
The kindly friend that mitigates our grief;
The plant that blooms though in a barren ſoil;
The ſpritely dawn that makes a priſon ſmile!
By thee ſecure we leave the road of ſtrife,
And tread the pleaſing ſilent paths of life;
By thee encourag'd, tempt the dang'rous ſea,
And, fearleſs, take an exile's fate with thee!
Thou being our guide, where'er we're forc'd to roam,
To whate'er region driv'n, we're ſtill at home:
Howe'er confin'd in dungeons hid from day,
The guiltleſs victims of a tyrant-ſway,
Thou art our liberty, and in thy ſight
Our bands are ſilken, and our fetters light,
Thou art the hungry ſtomach's rich repaſt,
The draught refreſhing to the thirſty taſte;
The ſureſt, greateſt wealth in all our need,
Poſſeſſing thee alone we're rich indeed.
Though poorly dreſs'd, expos'd to pinching air,
Thou art a clothing, laſting, warm, and fair:
Thou art the bandage of the aching head;
Thou ſmooth'ſt the ſick man's couch, and mak'ſt his bed,
Reviv'ſt his drooping ſoul, when arts are vain,
To ſtill his groanings, and compoſe his pain;
Thou near him, he undaunted looks on death,
And ſcarcely ſeems to ſigh away his breath,

ODE

ODE *to the* INHABITANT* *of a well-known dirty Shop in Leadenhall Street. From the European Magazine.*

WHO but has ſeen (if he can ſee at all),
'Twixt Aldgate's well-known pump and Leadenhall,
A curious hardware ſhop, in general full
Of wares from Birmingham and Pontypool?
Begrim'd with dirt, behold it's ample front,
With thirty years collected filth upon't:
See feſtoon'd cobwebs pendant o'er the door,
While boxes, bales, and trunks, are ſtrew'd around the floor.

Behold how whiſtling winds and driving rain
Gain free admiſſion at each broken pane,
Save where the dingy tenant keeps them out
With urn or tray, knife-caſe, or dirty-clout!
Here ſnuffers, waiters, patent-ſcrews for corks;
There caſters, card-racks, cheeſe-trays, knives and forks
Here empty caſes pil'd in heaps on high;
There packthread, papers, rope, in wild diſorder lie.

O ſay, thou enemy to ſoap and towels!
Haſt no compaſſion lurking in thy bowels?
Think what the neighbours ſuffer by thy whim
Of keeping ſelf and houſe in ſuch a trim?
The officers of health ſhould view the ſcene
And put thy ſhop and thee in quarantine.

Conſider thou, in ſummer's ardent heat,
When various means are tried to cool the ſtreet,
What muſt each decent neighbour ſuffer then
From noxious vapours iſſuing from thy den.

When fell Diſeaſe, with all her horrid train,
Spreads her dark pinions o'er ill-fated Spain,
That Britain may not witneſs ſuch a ſcene,
Behoves us doubly now to keep our dwellings clean.

* Nathaniel Bently (ſon of a reſpectable hardwareman of that name, who died about 1770) reſides at the corner of the Old Crown Tavern, Leadenhall-ſtreet, and is one of the moſt eccentric characters this day living. His father, who kept a carriage, and lived in ſtyle, gave him a good education. It is ſaid, indeed, that he ſpeaks not only French, but Italian, fluently. Previous to his father's death, and for ſeveral years after, he was called the beau of Leadenhall-ſtreet, and was ſeen at all public places dreſſed as a *man of faſhion*. He attended, in a moſt elegant ſuit, the Fête at Ranelagh, given by the Spaniſh ambaſſador, on the king's recovery. His manners in company, in ſhort, beſpeak the gentleman; yet his appearance in buſineſs is little ſhort of diſguſting.

Say

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Say, if, within the ſtreet where thou doſt dwell,
Each houſe were kept exactly like thy cell;
O ſay, thou enemy to brooms and mops!
How long thy neighbours could keep open ſhops,
If, following thee in taſte, each wretched elf,
Unſhav'd, unwaſh'd, and ſqualid, like thyſelf,
Reſolved to live?—The anſwer's very plain;
One year would be the utmoſt of their reign:
Victims to filth, each votary ſoon would fall,
And one grand jail diſtemper kill them all.

Perſons there are, who ſay, thou haſt been ſeen
(Some years ago) with hands and face waſh'd clean;
And, would'ſt thou quit this moſt unſeemly plan,
Thou art ('tis ſaid) a very comely man,
Of poliſhed language, partial to the fair;
Then why not waſh thy face, and comb thy matted hair;
Clear from thy houſe accumulated dirt,
New paint the front, and wear a cleaner ſhirt.

THE EMPEROR PAUL.—A New Song.

Tune—"*The Tight Little Iſland.*

THO' of emp'rors and kings, and all ſuch fine things,
Hiſtorians and noveliſts bawl-o;
Yet none e'er ſhone in ſtory, with half ſo much glory,
As the great Ruſſian emperor Paul-o!
Then ah! ſing of emperor Paul-o,
Magnanimous emperor Paul-o,
No one e'er was known, ſo deſerving the throne,
As the valorous emperor Paul-o.

When a promiſe he made, that he France would invade,
And ſoon humble ev'ry proud Gaul-o,
Ev'ry one 'gan to raiſe his weak voice in the praiſe
Of our ally—the great emperor Paul-o;
What a friend was the emperor Paul-o,
Quite a bulwark was Peterſburg Paul-o!
And 'twas ev'ry one's ſure hope, the ſaviour of Europe,
Wou'd be found in the emperor Paul-o;

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Juſt when he was ſo hearty, up jumps Buonaparte,
For in truth, ſir, his hopes were quite ſmall-o,
Yet by dint of intrigue, he ſoon broke up the league,
Between us and the emperor Paul-o;
O faithleſs emperor Paul-o!
Changeable emperor Paul-o!
It muſt raiſe our ſurpriſe to hear ſo many lies,
From his honour the emperor Paul-o.

Then he fram'd a pretence, without reaſon or ſenſe,
To make us give Malta up all-o,
For he thought that his might wou'd put Briton's in fright,
As he was the great maſter Paul-o;
No, no, my dear ſweet maſter Paul-o,
You are quite in the wrong, Mr. Paul-o,
We're too much enlighten'd to be at all frighten'd
By the threats of the emperor Paul-o.

Upon this he began to enliſt ev'ry man,
And his troops altogether to call o,
And his meſſengers far-go, to lay an embargo,
By orders of emperor Paul-o;
For, ſays he, I'm the emperor Paul-o
They ſhall ſuffer, ſays emperor Paul-o;
And my ſtandard unfurl'd, ſhall aſtoniſh the world,
For there's war between Britain and Paul-o!

So its in contemplation, to make proclamation
To our admirals, both ſhort, tir, and tall-o,
To ſeize on his fleet, the moment they ſee't,
And retaliate on emperor Paul-o.
So take care, my dear emperor Paul-o;
You'll repent of this, emperor Paul-o;
For if we ſend Nelſon, he ſurely will tell ſoon
Some news of the veſſels of Paul-o.

VERSES

Inſcribed in the Temple of Friendſhip, at St. Anne's Hill.

By the Right Hon. R. FITZPATRICK.

THE Star, whoſe radiant beams adorn
With vivid light the riſing morn,
The ſeaſon chang'd—with milder ray
Cheers the calm hour of parting day.

So

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So Friendſhip (of the generous breaſt
The earlieſt, and the lateſt, gueſt)
In youthful prime with ardour glows,
And ſweetens Life's ſerener cloſe.

Benignant pow'r! in this retreat,
O! deign to fix thy tranquil ſeat;
Where, rail'd above the duſky vale,
Thy favourites brighter ſuns ſhall hail!
And, from Life's buſy ſcenes remote,
To thee their cheerful hours devote;
Nor waſte a tranſient thought, to know
What cares diſturb the crowd below!

The BARD *to his* CANDLE.

HAIL, bright companion of my lonely hours!
My midnight ſun, with faintly glimm'ring ray;
To thee thy maſter now a ſonnet pours;
Accept the verſe—'tis all the bard can pay.

When ſolemn darkneſs veils the gloom-ſpread earth,
And Night with ſable ſceptre rules the plain,
What time pale Fear gives fancied ſpectres birth,
And imag'd terrors fill the vulgar brain.

Then to my ſilent chamber I retire,
Where books and muſing ſolitude invite,
With ſecret pleaſure trim my chearful fire,
And from its flame my frugal taper light.

More dear to me thy little quiv'ring rays,
Which ſcarce illume my ſilent ſtudy round,
Than the proud glare where thouſand torches blaze,
And Mirth and Folly pour their mingled ſound.

Theſe ſpread their light, with glitt'ring radiance fraught,
To chaſe Reflection from the heedleſs throng—
Thy ſober beam aſſiſts the poet's thought,
Inſpires the lay, and tunes his ſoul to ſong.

By thy lone light, full oft the Muſe has wove
Or tale or ſong in Fancy's flow'ry loom;—
Oft has ſhe breath'd the plaintive notes of love,
And mourn'd her fate—a hapleſs lover's doom.

Thou,

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Thou, ſole companion of each anxious care,
Didſt yield ſweet ſolace in this penſive hour,
My boſom's various thought didſt ſeem to ſhare,
And riſe or fall with ſympathetic pow'r.

When tranſient joy beam'd rapture to my breaſt,
In Fancy's eye I ſaw thee brighter ſhine;
And when my heart ſome hov'ring fear conſeſt,
With gloom congenial did thy flame decline.

To thee the Poet's grateful ſong is due,
To thee, my friend (for ſocial is thy kind),
More than companion, thou'rt a teacher too,
And much of moral ſhew'ſt th' obſervant mind.

Thy gradual waſte in unperceiv'd decay,
May well to man a moral leſſon teach,
Thus glide his years in ſilent courſe away,
Towards that bourne we all are doom'd to reach.

Be thou my friend—and as thy luſtre, mine;
And when Life's lamp but gleams with feeble pow'r,
Clear as thy flame may parting reaſon ſhine,
Warm in decay, and bright in Life's laſt hour!

TRANQUILLITY.

AN ODE.

VIX EA NOSTRA VOCO.

WHAT ſtateſmen ſcheme, and ſoldiers work,
Whether the Pontiff, or the Turk,
Will e'er renew th' expiring leaſe
Of empire; whether war or peace
Will beſt play off the conſul's game;
What fancy-figures, and what name
Half-thinking, ſenſual France, a natural ſlave,
On thoſe ne'er-broken chains, her ſelf-forg'd chains, will grave;

Diſturb not me! Some tears I ſhed,
When bow'd the Swiſs his noble head;
Since then, with quiet heart have view'd
Both diſtant fights, and treaties crude,

Whoſe

Whose heap'd-up terms, which fear compels,
(Live Discord's green combustibles,
And future fuel of the funeral pyre)
Now hide, and soon, alas! will feed the low-burnt fire.

Tranquillity! Thou better name
Than all the family of Fame,
Thou ne'er wilt leave my riper age
To low intrigue and factious rage:
For O! dear child of thoughtful truth!
To thee I gave my early youth,
And left the bark, and blest the stedfast shore,
Ere yet the storm-wind rose, and scar'd me with its roar.

Who late and lingering seeks thy shrine,
On him, but seldom, pow'r divine!
Thy spirit rests. Satiety
And sloth, poor counterfeits of thee!
Mock the tir'd worldling: idle hope
And dire remembrance interlope,
And vex the fev'rish slumber of the mind;
The bubble floats before, the spectre stalks behind.

But me, the Power divine will lead,
At morning, thro' the accustom'd mead:
And in the sultry summer heat,
Will build me up a mossy seat;
And when the gust of autumn crowds,
And breaks the busy moonlight clouds,
She best the thought will lift, the heart attune,
Light as the busy clouds, calm as the gliding moon!

The feeling heart, the searching soul,
To her I dedicate the whole;
And while within myself I trace
The greatness of a future race,
Aloof, with hermit's eye, I scan
The present works of present man;
A wild and dreamlike trade of blood and guile,
Too foolish for a tear, too wicked for a smile.

Account

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Account of Books for the Year 1801.

Ægyptiaca: or, Obſervations on certain Antiquities of Egypt. In Two Parts. Part I. the Hiſtory of Pompey's Pillar elucidated. Part II. Abdollatif's Account of the Antiquities of Egypt, written in Arabic, A. D. 1203. Tranſlated into Engliſh, and illuſtrated with Notes. By J. White, D. D. Profeſſor of Arabic in the Univerſity of Oxford. Part I. Oxford, 1801.

NO region of the earth has more frequently employed, or better deſerves, the critical inveſtigation of the exploring antiquary than Egypt. The great fountain whence admiring Greece drew the rich ſtream of the ſciences, the exhauſtleſs treaſure-houſe of the nobleſt antiquities, her ſhores have attracted, in every age and from every clime, thoſe more zealous ſons of literature who wiſhed to penetrate to the ſources of human knowledge, and viſit the ſacred receſſes of the ancient ſages of the world. As the foot wanders through the gloomy caverns of the Thebais, the ſchools of thoſe ſages, and as the eye ranges over its ſpacious temples, the mind is tranſported back to the remoteſt ages, and holds "high converſe" with the ſhades of the anceſtors of the human race. The preſent barbariſm of her ſons, and the hazard of the viſit, indeed, allow the ſublime pleaſure but to few; and happy is it for ſcience when ſuch accompliſhed ſcholars as a Pococke and a Niebuhr, glowing with an equal deſire to inform others as to be inſtructed themſelves, undertake and accompliſh the arduous taſk. Fortunate alſo is it for her intereſts when other ſcholars, alike ardent in her cauſe, and thoroughly adequate to the office, but not favoured with the like opportunities of perſonally examining thoſe precious remains of primitive magnificence, combine their efforts with them to throw light on what is obſcure, and rectify what may be erroneous in the rapid effuſions of a moment of hurry, alarm, and peril. In literary adventures of this kind the modern Egyptian beholds nothing but the daring enterprizes either of European robbers, to plunder the tombs of the dead, or of thoſe whom their ſkill in the black art enables to burſt the charm that guards, in their ſacred repoſitories, the treaſures of the Pharaohs.

The learned author of the Egyptiaca does not, at leaſt in the work immediately before us, in this firſt part, ſolicit us to accompany him to fabrics and to periods of this very remote antiquity; the ſubject of his inquiry, however, cannot fail of being highly intereſting, and his ſentiments truly gratifying, to the curious antiquary, when he reflects that

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that they are the result of the laborious ſcrutiny of the firſt Arabic ſcholar in Britain, if not in the world.

No prouder or more perfect monument of antiquity remains to gratify and inſtruct the artiſt of modern times than the pillar falſely aſſigned to Pompey. The great elevation and the elegant workmanſhip of this vaſt Corinthian column, added to the circumſtance of its having ſtood ſo immoveably firm for more than twenty centuries, on a baſe little more than five feet ſquare, for ſuch is the fact, what appears to be the pedeſtal being of too weak a maſonry to ſupport the prodigious maſs of granite above it, and its whole weight has been diſcovered to reſt on a fragment of an ancient Egyptian obeliſk, proved to be ſo by the hieroglyphicks engraved upon it, and thoſe hieroglyphicks too in an inverted poſition, which proves that it muſt have been reared after the period when the native Egyptians, by whom they were conſidered as ſacred, were no longer maſters of the country; the above-mentioned circumſtances, we ſay, render this coloſſal remain of ancient art not leſs intereſting than it is ſublime.

The preface is written with great modeſty, yet with much ſpirit, intermixed with very indignant reprobation, renewed alſo at the concluſion of the work, of the Gallic invaders of Egypt, who, with all their boaſted love of the arts, have by no means added to the ſtock of knowledge of Alexandrian antiquities, the report of the national inſtitute being ſimply confined to a deſcription of the pillar, and the detail of its dimenſions, while to the ſtock of the miſeries of the wretched inhabitants they have added a dreadful accumulation.

The firſt ſection of the diſſertation has reference to the period of its erection, a very important point in the diſcuſſion.

"For, whether (obſerves our author) it were the production of regal power and munificence; or were reared by a loyal community in gratitude to an imperial benefactor; whether it ſtood ſingle, and formed a whole by itſelf; or were a part only and appendage of ſome great edifice; theſe are either ſubordinate queſtions, or would receive a ſatisfactory anſwer, if its age were once completely aſcertained. The elucidation of this point, therefore, has generally been the firſt aim of every author who has written upon the ſubject; and the attempt has given riſe to conjectures the moſt wild and extravagant. Paradoxical inquirers have diſagreed ſo widely reſpecting the age of the column, that, on the one hand, its origin has been aſſigned to the ſecond century of the Chriſtian æra, and, on the other, to the remote and unknown period which witneſſed the building of the Pyramids.

"Of opinions claiming admiſſion by no better title than conjecture, I think it unneceſſary to ſpeak: my animadverſions will be confined to hypotheſes which profeſs to be founded on facts. If any one of theſe can ſtand the teſt of fair examination, my inquiry concerning the age of the column is at an end. But, if, on mature examination, they ſhall appear to be unfounded, I ſhall myſelf, in the courſe of theſe obſervations, offer a new hypotheſis: and I hope ſo to interweave this particular inveſtigation with other ſubjects.

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subject of literary discussion as to afford the reader some little entertainment, even though I should fail to convince him with respect to the principal object of research.

"Among the numerous authors who have attempted to determine the period in which this column was erected, there are three whose opinions have particularly attracted the attention of the learned world; our countryman Wortley Montagu, Brotier, and Michaelis."

Of these three writers the hypotheses are respectively examined, and the arguments for their support effectually confuted. That of Wortley Montagu, giving the honour of it to Vespasian, on account of a medal which he pretended to have found inserted near the base, is overthrown by the general suspicion of insincerity attached to his character, and the report, at that time current in Cairo, that the whole story was a gross forgery, intended to impose on the credulity of the learned.

The opinion of Brotier, the learned editor of Tacitus, which ascribes it to Ptolemy Euergetes, in consequence of a passage in father Sicard, is fallacious, because that passage is misquoted, and by no means supports the arguments deduced from it.

The conjecture of Michaelis, to whose general accuracy and profound erudition Dr. White pays the highest compliment, is also founded on a mistranslation of a passage in Abulfeda's Geography of Egypt, where the Arabic words Amûd Isfawari, translated the "Pillar of Severus," should have been translated the "Column of the pillars." On this expression the doctor makes the following observations:

"To an English ear this phrase will perhaps appear tautologous. Our language affords no correspondent term, no word equally extensive with Amûd; which includes both the round and the square pillar, and may be applied to a Grecian column or an Egyptian obelisk. At the time when the Arabic language first prevailed in Egypt, there were only two extraordinary objects of this kind remaining in Alexandria, Cleopatra's needle and Pompey's pillar; and the inhabitants appear to have distinguished them by their local situation, calling the one Amûd il Bahri, "The column of the sea," and the other Amûd Isfawâri, "The column of the pillars."

"It is, however, necessary to shew that some reason existed for the use of this appellation, as descriptive of the column. Now bishop Pococke informs us, explicitly, that there still remain some fragments of granite pillars, four feet in diameter, near the column of Pompey; and we have the most positive testimony of the Arabic writers of the middle ages, a testimony as much to be depended on, in this instance, as that of any Greek or Roman writer, that in the time of Richard Cœur de Lion, there were more than four hundred of these pillars standing in the immediate vicinity of the column. So that this magnificent monument at that time might evidently be called, with singular propriety, "The column of the pillars."

"It appears, therefore, that neither the suspected medal of Vespasian, the illegible inscription on the base, nor the mistaken version of the passage in Abulfeda, can afford any satisfactory information with re-

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ſpect to the hiſtory of the column. But having now, I truſt, removed at leaſt ſome of the impediments that obſtructed our way, it is time to quit this part of the ſubject for another; in the inveſtigation of which, while I endeavour to preſent the reader with an intereſting object of curioſity, ſome diſcovery may perhaps be made which will facilitate the remainder of our inquiry."

The ſucceeding ſection diſcuſſes the ſituation, in Alexandria, of the temple of the Egyptian deity, Serapis; and the remainder of the publication, including a very learned appendix, is intended to prove (which we are of opinion it does, as far as the ſubject will admit of proof) that this famous column was erected, amidſt an almoſt infinite number of others of ſmaller ſize, in the front of that immenſe edifice; that it was raiſed by the greateſt monarch of Egypt, in the zenith of his power, by Ptolemy Philadelphus, as a noble ſpecimen of Greek architecture, and bore, on its lofty capital, the ſtatue of its illuſtrious father, the founder of the dynaſty of the Ptolemies.

"Having demonſtrated that the true and literal ſignification of the Arabic words Amûd Iſlawâri is the column of the pillars, that is, the moſt magnificent and beautiful of the four hundred columns with which, in the time of Richard Cœur de Lion, it is ſaid to have been ſurrounded, our author proceeds to collect together all the ſcattered accounts to be met with concerning the Alexandrian temple of Serapis, the moſt ſuperb of all the heathen fanes, except the Roman capitol itſelf. Rufinus, Ammianus Marcellinus, Tacitus, and other early hiſtorians, both claſſical and ſacred, are cited, to prove the exiſtence of its vaſt quadrangles, its lofty columns, its ſpacious windows, and the hundred marble ſteps by which the adoring crowds aſcended to the ſanctuary of the god, and the deity himſelf, of ſuch ſtupendous dimenſions, that with his right hand he touched one ſide of the roof of the temple, and with his left the other. The body of this mighty idol was compoſed of an aſſemblage of all the moſt precious metals and coſtly woods; and the very walls of the interior ſhrine were of ſolid gold. Of this noble ſtructure, begun by the firſt and completed by the ſecond Ptolemy, during all the dynaſty of thoſe ſovereigns, the glory remained unimpaired, and it was hallowed as the choſen reſidence of the greateſt and moſt venerated divinity of the Egyptians. In the ſubſequent extract will be found Dr. White's account of the deceiving worſhip and final demolition in the fourth century of this ancient temple by the command of the emperor Theodoſius, with ſome other pertinent reflections on the general view and policy of the Ptolemies in erecting thoſe public edifices of ſtriking grandeur at Alexandria, which have immortalized their names.

"But the pure light of the Goſpel was now diſpelling the gloom of Paganiſm, and the tutelar deity of Alexandria was ſoon to be deprived of his aſcended dominion. The firſt ſignal of his diſgrace and downfal was the removal of the Nilometer from his temple, by the command of Conſtantine. His final ruin was accompliſhed by the archbiſhop Theophilus, who zealouſly executed the decree of Theodoſius

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ſius againſt his image and temple. At this time his idol was broken in pieces, the golden walls which enſhrined him laid in ruins; and, in the ſubſequent reign of Arcadius, a Chriſtian church was erected on the ſpot which had been occupied by the temple.

"But though the temple, which formed a part of the Serapeum, was thus raſed to the ground, the religious zeal of Theophilus did not prompt him to deſtroy the remainder of the edifice. Its ſpacious courts and ſtately columns ſtill continued to be the admiration of the world. This we collect from the Arabic hiſtorians, whom we are ſoon to take for our guides.

"In the preceding account, formed from the ſcanty materials ſupplied by Greek and Roman writers, no attempt has been made to fix the ſite of the Serapeum. It is indeed a difficulty which ſome writers have acknowledged, and others avoided; and thoſe who profeſs to decide the queſtion, have been more prodigal of conjecture than of proof. My own ſentiments on this ſubject I reſerve for another ſection. I will cloſe this by requeſting the reader's attention to the conduct of the two firſt Ptolemys; which it may be uſeful to recollect in the courſe of our future inquiries. For their zealous ſupport of men of talents and learning, theſe princes have been deſervedly celebrated in every ſucceeding age; but in doing this they had aſſuredly ſomething more in view than merely to gratify their taſte for literature, or to obtain a ſplendid name among the munificent patrons of art and ſcience. There appears at leaſt to be an evident and appropriate benefit, which they were well aware this meaſure would confer upon their new kingdom. The ſituation of their capital had been happily choſen for the centre of univerſal commerce. But to obtain the full advantage of this great deſign, the concurrence and aſſiſtance of the native Egyptians became neceſſary: and the introduction of foreign letters and arts would preſent itſelf as an obvious policy, to ſubdue their unſocial temper, and to prepare them for that mutual accommodation and general intercourſe, which are required in a commercial people. The ſame object would likewiſe be promoted by a communion of religious worſhip: and in this point we may obſerve the addreſs of the firſt Ptolemy in conciliating his new ſubjects, and flattering the ancient manners of the country. The admonition to eſtabliſh Serapis in Egypt was pretended to have been communicated to the monarch in a myſterious dream, which he ſubmitted not to Grecian ſoothſayers, but to ſages of their own nation; and, to enſure to the foreign deity a favourable reception among them, he was made to exchange his Attic titles for an Egyptian name. The temple likewiſe, which was deſtined for his abode, ſeemed to offer a fair occaſion to this prince for introducing the architecture of his country to notice and favour. What the diſtinguiſhing feature of this building was, has already been ſhown; and from its ſingular character it is probable, that the founder's deſign was to produce a new example of art, in which the genius of each country ſhould be happily united, and the native boldneſs of the

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Egyptian manner combined with the graces and beauties of Grecian elegance."

The fifth section of this work contains a very interesting digression relative to the burning of the Alexandrian library, which formed a part of the Serapeum, or that vast range of magnificent structures near the temple of Serapis, on which it conferred its name. On this subject he opposes Mr. Gibbons very confident opinion and statement, that no such conflagration ever took place; a statement founded on the circumstance of that memorable event not being to be found in the annals of Eutychius, and the Saracenic history of that period by the learned Al Makin. After vindicating the character of Abulpharajus, from the injurious reflections attempted to be thrown upon that historian by Mr. Gibbon, he adds:

"The high literary as well as ecclesiastical rank of this illustrious primate of the East, and the numerous concurrent testimonies as well of Mohammedans as Christians to the gravity and sanctity of his character, would, in my opinion, even if he were found to stand single in his testimony, more than overbalance the frivolous cavils of Mr. Gibbon.

"But farther, to the negative argument of Mr. Gibbon, I shall venture to oppose the positive testimony of the two Arabic historians, both writers of unquestionable authority, and both orthodox professors of the Mussulman faith—Macrisi and Abdollatif; who not only agree in stating the fact—the burning of the library, but also point out to us the exact spot on which the library stood. For, after describing the column, commonly called Pompey's pillar, and mentioning the adjacent ruins of some ancient edifice, they add, that 'there was then a library which Amru ebn el Aas burnt by the command of the Khalif Omar." I conclude, therefore, that both the burning, or more strictly speaking, the despoiling, of the library by Amru, and its actual situation, are indisputably ascertained.

"A satisfactory answer having now, I hope, been given to the sceptical insinuation of Mr. Gibbon, I advance a step farther. As the library despoiled by Amru was a royal library, and as the first Ptolemæan library was unfortunately burnt by Julius Cæsar, this must necessarily have been the second Ptolemæan library; and consequently part of the temple of Serapis. We have at length then, by the assistance of Arabic writers, unexpectedly discovered the site of the Serapeum; a discovery eagerly sought for by the curious for more than a century: and hence arises one strong proof, that a knowledge of Arabic may be made peculiarly subservient to the illustration of Egyptian antiquities.

"But are there no passages it may be asked, in Greek or Latin authors, which corroborate the evidence of Arabic writers respecting the site of the Serapeum? I answer, that certainly there are; though their meaning has hitherto been wholly overlooked, and perhaps would for ever have been lost in obscurity, had not a ray of light broken in from the east. Such, however, is the accumulated force of these passages, when properly considered, as to leave no room to doubt that the temple of Serapis was contiguous to what is commonly called the pillar of Pompey."

Having

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Having conducted his readers thus far in the inveſtigation, our author, in the final ſection, proceeds to ſtate the reſult of his own conjectures and inquiries. According to his idea the pillar ſtood, ſupremely eminent above great numbers of others ſurrounding it, in the middle of the area in the front of Serapeum, whoſe loſty columns remained entire after the majeſtic pile itſelf, reared upon them, or to which they led, was deſtroyed. The remains of the pillars adjoining to it, ſeen by Pococke, are compoſed of the ſame materials as its ſhaft, viz. the durable granite of Egypt. It ſtood according to Dr. White's Arabic authorities, at the time they wrote, at the northern angle of a vaſt building of uncertain antiquity. The Romans, he juſtly obſerves, would never have expended ſuch vaſt ſums of money, as the erection of this column required, or have exhauſted the ſkill of Greek artiſts, to enrich a provincial city; a city too, and a kingdom, whoſe proudeſt monuments they were perpetually deſpoiling and wafting over the ocean to decorate their own ſuperb capital. The argument and final deciſion are ſtated in the ſubſequent extract; and the work concludes, as it commenced, with an animated invective againſt the atrocious invaders of a country, ſacred to genius and ancient ſcience, which they have deluged with blood, and overwhelmed with deſolation.

"We are told by thoſe who have lately taken its dimenſions, and who in modern ages have had the beſt opportunity and means of examination, that its principal member, the ſhaft, appears to be of Grecian architecture. If then, we exclude the Roman emperors, ſurely this internal evidence will juſtify our concluſion, that the æra of the column is to be found in ſome point of the Ptolemæan dynaſty; for till long after the conqueſt of Alexander the arts of Greece were not introduced into Egypt. If we conſider the ſecond monarch of this race, his hiſtory, his diſpoſition, his ability; the connection of a column with a building confeſſedly founded by him, and the ſameneſs of the character and materials; if we take each of theſe circumſtances diſtinctly, and weigh their accumulated force; there will be little occaſion to heſitate at reſtoring the honour of this magnificent monument to Ptolemy Philadelphus; an honour indeed, which cannot juſtly be conteſted with him by any character in Greek or Roman hiſtory, either in remote or later ages.

"There yet remains to be mentioned one circumſtance in the life of this prince, which will give additional weight to the preceding concluſion. We are informed by Pliny, that he raiſed an obeliſk of eighty cubits, as a pledge of his affectionate regard for the memory of Arſinoë. As he exhibited in his capital this ſpecimen of Egyptian architecture, he might wiſh alſo to diſplay to his Egyptian ſubjects, the architecture of his own country, in its utmoſt magnificence, and to ſuperadd the decorations of a more graceful proportion and a more appropriate ornament. The obeliſk was a naked memorial; but the column was certainly ſurmounted by the ſtatue of him to whoſe honour it was erected.

"But here we confeſs, that we are unable to advance farther than to point out him, who was the likelieſt and worthieſt to ſtand on this

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unrivaled column. The gigantic image of Serapis was placed within the temple. The obelisk reared by Philadelphus was a memorial of connubial love. But this monarch was also celebrated for piety towards his parents, whose statues he was especially careful to multiply and adorn. Whom then can we suppose to have occupied this distinguished place before the temple of Serapis, and in the view of the whole city, but him who was the first monarch of his family, and under whose auspices the tutelar deity was introduced into Egypt.

"In the course of this inquiry I have often felt the want of that evidence which might still be obtained, were the fire of his renowned temple diligently investigated by able men. In the mission of the national institute I entertained a hope, that at least some better knowledge of Alexandrian antiquities would result from the invasion of Egypt. But this hope was not more fondly conceived than cruelly disappointed. For except a description of the pillar, with a detail of its dimensions, nothing has been performed, or even attempted. It had been doubted whether the eminence, on which it stands, be natural or artificial ground; and the judicious Pococke, who noticed certain ruins near it, hinted that they were the remains of some grand edifice. But these hints have been left unimproved, and these doubts still remain unsatisfied. Professors of arts and teachers of science have left museums crowded with the spoils of Florence and Rome—have received the fiat of the great nation to instruct as well as to subdue the world—they have visited this spot, with power to examine it without molestation, and certainly with no modest reluctance to claim the merit of discovery. Yet what new information, useful or curious, have they contributed on this subject? Certainly none. But whilst the antiquary may regret the opportunity that has thus strangely been lost; whatever the wisdom of Divine Providence may have determined shall be its final issue, every friend of humanity cannot but lament the accumulated misery, which has hitherto resulted from so treacherous an enterprise against this devoted country—an enterprise, which though it has eventually called forth the most brilliant and unparalleled exertions of British skill, and valour, and magnanimity: yet has not tempered the horrors of war, and rapine, and massacre, by the production of one single advantage, either to the cause of literature, or to the ferocious invader himself, or to the wretched and unoffending victims of his faithlessness and fury.

The appendix is principally designed for the perusal of the Arabic and Greek scholar, and contains the most ample and detailed testimonies, collected from books and MSS. in those languages, in support of the statements in the preceding pages. These will not admit of extract or abridgement: what we have already given affords a sufficient specimen of the work.

The Poetical Works of John Milton, In Six Volumes, with the principal Notes of various Commentators. To which are added, Illustrations, with some Account of the Life of Milton. By

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By the Rev. Henry John Todd, M. A. 8vo. Johnson, &c. 2l. 14s.

THE labours of the learned were formerly employed almoſt excluſively, in illuſtrating the claſſic writers of Greece and Rome, and little attention was paid to thoſe authors of our own country whoſe works were not leſs deſerving of their care, nor leſs required it. Of late years, the great names which have adorned the literature of our own country have claimed and received the notice of thoſe who were beſt able to diſplay their beauties, to explain their obſcurities and to defend their genuine text from perverſe conjectures and ill-founded objections. Chaucer, Spenſer, Shakſpeare, Ben Jonſon, Beaumont and Fletcher, have already to boaſt of the attention of the firſt names in Engliſh literature; and we have now to announce, that Milton is indebted to a new editor, who muſt be allowed to have done juſtice to his author, and to have executed his talk with diligence, with taſte, and with judgement.

After pointing out the ſeveral ſources from whence the commentary on Milton has been derived, and acknowledging the aſſiſtance he has received from individuals, Mr. Todd proceeds to give the reader an account of what he is farther to expect in the conduct of the preſent edition.

"The chief purpoſe of the new notes is, in humble imitation of Mr. Warton, to explain the alluſions of Milton; to illuſtrate or to vindicate his beauties; to point out his imitations both of others and of himſelf; to elucidate his obſolete diction; and, by the addudtion and juxtapoſition of parallels, univerſally gleaned both from his poetry and proſe, to aſcertain his favourite words, and to ſhew the peculiarities of his phraſeology." Mr. Warton juſtly adds, that "among the Engliſh poets, thoſe readers who truſt to preceding commentators will be led to believe, that Milton imitated Spenſer and Shakeſpeare only. But his ſtyle, expreſſion, and more extenſive combinations of diction, together with many of his thoughts, are alſo to be traced in other Engliſh poets, who were either contemporaries or predeceſſors, and of whom many are now not commonly known. Nor have his imitations from Spenſer and Shakeſpeare been hitherto ſufficiently noted." Of this it hath been a part of the preſent editor's talk, as it was of Mr. Warton, to produce proofs. The coincidencies of "Fancy's ſweeteſt children," Spenſer, Shakeſpear, and Milton, are accordingly here enlarged. The obligations of our author to Dante, hitherto little noticed, as well as ſome other Italian poets, are pointed out. The poet's imitations of himſelf are alſo conſiderably augmented. Nor have the romances and fabulous narratives, on which the poetry of Milton is often founded, been neglected. The editor, while he has not been ſparing of claſſical illuſtration, has conſtantly kept in mind the neceſſity of attention to the literature of Milton's age. Without this attention, as Mr. Warton remarks, "the force of many ſtrikingly poetical paſſages has been weakened or unperceived, becauſe their origin was unknown, unexplored, or miſunderſtood. Coeval books, which might clear ſuch references, were therefore to be conſulted; and a new line of commen-

tary was to be purſued. Comparatively, the claſſical annotator has here but little to do. Dr. Newton, an excellent ſcholar, was unacquainted with the treaſures of the Gothic library. From his more ſolid and rational ſtudies he never deviated into this idle track of reading." But as Milton, at leaſt in his early poems, may be reckoned an old Engliſh poet; and as in his later poetry alluſions to the ſources of fiction, with which he had been pleaſed in his youth, often appear: he generally requires that illuſtration, however trifling it may ſeem to faſtidious readers, without which no old Engliſh poet can well be illuſtrated.

"The arrangement of the materials in theſe volumes has been formed with a view to uniformity, and to the accommodation of the reader. The table of general contents will point out the order obſerved; the diſſertations prefixed; the appendixes ſubjoined. To the whole is added, a gloſſarial index. The editor thinks it proper to obſerve, that in compliance with the wiſhes of ſeveral literary friends, the Paradiſe Loſt has been placed firſt, in the following methodical diſpoſition of the poetical works.

"He has endeavoured to render the text as perſpicuous as poſſible: not only by ſeveral illuſtrations of antiquated words, which, as Mr. Warton has obſerved, is a ſucceſſion of editions had been gradually and ſilently, yet perhaps not always properly refined; but alſo by comparing the copies publiſhed under the immediate inſpection of Milton, as well as moſt ſubſequent editions; more particularly thoſe of Tickell, Fenton, Bentley, and the late editions; as the notes will ſhew. Nor ſhould it here be omitted, that Milton has not ſo uniformly contracted the words of his language as to countenance the ſpelling of iſle, of honour, of inferior, of muſick, and ſeveral other words, with the omiſſion of a letter in each. Milton's manuſcript at Cambridge, and his own editions of his poems, as well as his Paradiſe Loſt, will afford teſtimonies to this obſervation. The text of Milton muſt indeed exhibit ſome peculiarities. By ſuch as are here retained the meaning cannot be embarraſſed. His love of Italian, of Chaucer, and of Spenſer, requires this notice. To the punctuation of which Milton has been pronounced by Mr. Warton to have been habitually careleſs, great attention has been paid. The editor conceived it his duty likewiſe to examine the manuſcript, containing many of Milton's early poems, preſerved in the library of Trinity college, Cambridge: and he found on examination ſeveral particularities which had been omitted by thoſe who had before collated the manuſcript, and which were too curious not to be noticed in the preſent edition. To the end of the ſeveral poems of which there are copies in the manuſcript, theſe various readings are annexed. The reaſon is aſſigned.

"The editor offers, with the utmoſt deference, ſome account of the life of Milton; of which the materials have been drawn from authentic ſources. In this biographical attempt ſome new anecdotes, relating to the hiſtory of Milton's friends, of his works, and of his times, will alſo be found. Theſe may, perhaps, plead as an apology for the raſhneſs of the editor in attempting to ſketch the poet, whom the maſterly hands of a Johnſon and a Hayley

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a Hayley have depicted; a raſhneſs to which he has been impelled by the perſuaſion of others, that to a new edition of his works it is a cuſtom to prefix the life of the author.

"Such are the materials here accumulated in order to explain the labours of Milton: of Milton, the proud boaſt of his own country, and the admiration of the world: of Milton, whoſe imitations of others are ſo generally adorned with new modes of ſentiment or phraſeology, that they loſe the nature of borrowings, and diſplay the ſkill and originality of a perfect maſter; and from whom ſucceeding poets, at various periods, have "ſtolen authentic fire."

To this account we ſhall only add, that Mr. Todd, in the language of Dr Johnſon, "might have ſpoken of his own diligence and ſagacity in terms of greater ſelf-approbation, without deviating from modeſty or truth."

The additions to be found in the preſent re-publication, beſides innumerable notes both original and ſelected, are the well written life of Milton already mentioned; the nuncupative will of the author; a liſt of editions, tranſlations, and alterations, of the poetical works; a liſt of detached pieces of criticiſm relative to the poetical works; an appendix to the life; commendatory verſes on Milton; Dr. Johnſon's remarks on Milton's verſification, with remarks by the editor; inquiry into the origin of Paradiſe Loſt; plans of Paradiſe Loſt, as a tragedy; preliminary obſervations on Paradiſe Regained, and on the origin of it; preliminary obſervations on Samſon Agoniſtes, on Lycidas, on L'Allegro & Il Penſeroſo, on Arcades, with large extracts from a manuſcript unpubliſhed Maſk, by Marſton; accounts of Ludlow-caſtle, of the earls of Bridgewater, and of Henry Lawes; on the origin of Comus; preliminary obſervations on the Sonnets; on Henry Conſtable, and Mr. Stillingfleet's manuſcript Sonnets; appendix to the Sonnets; Dr. C. Burney's preliminary obſervations on the Greek verſes; Baron's imitations of Milton's early poems; on Lauder's interpolations, &c.

After this enumeration, we have no need to add, that this edition is the moſt complete of any of our great Epick Bard's poetical works, and ſuch as we doubt not will afford univerſal ſatisfaction.

An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa, in the Years 1797 *and* 1798: *including curſory Obſervations on the Geology and Geography of the ſouthern Part of that Continent: the natural Hiſtory of ſuch Objects as occurred in the animal, vegetable, and mineral Kingdoms; and Sketches of the phyſical and moral Characters of the various Tribes of Inhabitants ſurrounding the Settlement of the Cape of Good Hope. To which is annexed, a Deſcription of the preſent State, Population, and Produce of that extenſive Colony; with a Map conſtructed entirely from actual Obſervations made in the Courſe of the Travels. By John Barrow, late Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, and Auditor-General of the public Accounts at the Cape of Good Hope.* 4to. pp. 420. 1*l.* 10*s.* *Boards.* *Cadell, jun. and Davies.* 1801.

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THE author of the travels recorded in the volume before us, appears to be endowed with the qualities necessary for an undertaking like that in which he engaged. He has not only informed us what are the general appearances and nature of the country, what plants are produced, and what are the dispositions and customs of the inhabitants, but he has viewed the regions under his inspection with the eye of a politician, and has inquired what new productions in the animal and vegetable kingdoms may be advantageously introduced; he has pointed out the spots proper for watering places; and the bays of good anchorage; and with the feelings and views of enlightened humanity, he has reprobated the cruel treatment of the Hottentots, and suggested means for bettering their condition.

The first chapter of the work is introduced by an extract from the records of the East-India company, respecting the act of taking possession of the Cape of Good Hope in the year 1620.—The subsequent history of the colony, under the Dutch government, is next briefly related. While the Cape remained in the hands of these its old masters, scarcely any thing was done towards ascertaining the geography of the country: the only travellers, whose sole view was to acquire useful information, having been the governor Van Plettenberg and colonel Gordon; who fixed the eastern boundaries of the colony on the spot as they now stand. The settlement, however, being captured by the English in 1796, it was the object of the several expeditions performed by Mr. Barrow, to complete the line of demarcation through the heart of the country, to the western shore. The journals were made in the years 1797 and 1798; and they supplied materials for a chart executed by the orders of the Earl of Macartney, and which is prefixed to Mr. Barrow's publication. This chart was constructed entirely from actual observations of latitude and of bearings, from the estimation of distances, and from frequent angular intersections of remarkable objects:

"From the chart (says the author) it appears that the extent and dimensions of the territory composing the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, now permanently fixed, are as follows:

"Length from West to East.

	Miles.
Cape Point to Kaffer Land	580
River Kouffie to Zuureberg	529

Breadth from South to North.

River Kouffie to Cape Point	315
Nieuwveldt mountains to Plettenberg's Bay	160
Mouth of the Tuffi River to Plettenberg's Baaken . .	225

which gives a parallelogram, whose mean length is 550, and mean breadth 233, English miles, comprehending an area of 128,150 square miles. This great extent of country, deducting the population of Cape Town, is peopled by about 15,000 white inhabitants, so that each individual might possess eight and a half square miles of ground. A very great portion, however, of this territory may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture for the support of cattle. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay thinly

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thinly sprinkled over with crystalized sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acrid, saline, and succulent plants, and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with sour grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose, at least, one half of the colony of the Cape. These chains of mountains and the interjacent plains are extended generally in the direction of east and west, except indeed that particular range which, beginning at False Bay, opposite to the Cape Point, stretches to the northward along the western coast as far as the mouth of Olifant's river, which is about 240 miles."

The territory, comprehended under the name of the Cape of Good Hope, is divided into four districts; over each of which presides a landdrost, who, with a council of six country burghers, regulates the police, superintends the government, and determines petty causes: but his decisions are subject to an appeal to the court of justice in Cape Town, the metropolis of the settlement.

The usual places of resort for ships trading to the Cape are False-Bay and Table-Bay, the one washing the southern, and the other the northern shore of the isthmus. There are also two small bays on the west side of the peninsula, one called Hout or Wood Bay, and the other Chapman's Bay.

Timber of all kinds for building is very rare at the Cape, yet little pains have been taken to cultivate it near the town. In parts of the country not far distant, plantations of oak-trees, of the white poplar, and of the stone pine, are to be found, and thrive rapidly: but their timber is generally unsound. The article of fuel is so scarce at Cape Town, that a small cart load, composed of the branches of the silver-tree, of the larger heaths, &c. sells from 20s. to 28s. A slave is usually kept in families for the sole purpose of collecting fire-wood; and the annual expense in a moderate family, for faggots for the kitchen-fire, (the only one in the house) is nearly fifty pounds. To remedy this evil, lord Macartney ordered a search to be made for fossil coal; and the operation of boring was begun on a tongue of land projecting from the Table Mountain: but it was soon discontinued, on the discovery of actual coal coming out to day, along the banks of a deep rivulet flowing out of the Tygerberg-hill. The coal already found is at the depth of two feet; but, when Mr. Barrow wrote his account, the borer had been put down in several places, in hopes of meeting with the main bed, without success.

Though the inhabitants of the Cape Town suffer the inconvenience of scarcity of fuel, they enjoy several natural advantages; and their market is supplied with abundance of sea-fish, with fruits, and with vegetables. Some of their vineyards are of sufficient extent to produce, besides the supply of the market with grapes and prepared raisins, about 100,000 gallons of wine annually.

The botanist may find an ample field of investigation in the Cape district. Its vegetable productions, Mr. Barrow says, (and he is good authority, since he appears to be himself a cultivator of natural history) are more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world;

and

and of the fruteſcent or ſhrubby plants, there is likewiſe great abundance. To zoologiſts, the animals of the Cape afford a more contracted ſcope.

Inſects of every deſcription abound during the ſummer months: muſquitoes are leſs troubleſome than in moſt warm climates; but a ſmall ſand fly, almoſt inviſible, is the cauſe of great torment. Almoſt all the ſnakes of the country are venomous. The fatal diſeaſes, which prevail among the natives, Mr. B. attributes to their habits of life, rather than to the climate; in ſupport of which opinion, he remark that the Engliſh troops enjoy uncommonly good health in this colony.

In chapter II. Mr. B. relates his journey from the cape acroſs the Karroo, or Arid Deſert, to the Droſdy of Graaff Reynet. This excurſion was made in the month of July, the author proceeding with covered waggons, drawn by bullocks, who travel at the rate of three miles in an hour, for eleven or twelve hours unremittingly. The journeys at the Cape are in general performed in the night, in order that during the day the oxen may brouſe among the ſhrubbery, which is their common food; ſince, in the dry ſeaſon, the ground does not produce a ſingle blade of graſs. After a deſcription of the nature and productions of the country lying between Cape Town and the entrance of Karoo, Mr. Barrow gives an account of the farmer of the country, the Dutch peaſant or boor, which is too intereſting to be abridged, and too long to be inſerted here.

We are next preſented with a deſcription of the women of the African peaſantry; who, in liſtleſs inactivity, "ſleep along the blank of life," exciting no love, interchanging no affections, harbouring no ſympathies, but alike inſenſible to the ſedate pleaſures of ſocial intercourſe, and to the tumultuous exhilarations of public feſtivals. Yet, rude and ignorant as the peaſantry are, the virtues of hoſpitality are cultivated by them to exceſs; and all travellers are equally welcome to the beſt food and accommodation which their means can ſupply.

Mr. Barrow and his company waited in the Hex-river-valley two days, principally for the arrival of two farmers, who, beſides their knowledge of the places at which water was to be found in the Karoo, were neceſſary to ſtrengthen the party againſt the attacks of the ſavage Hottentots, or Bosjeſmans.

Among the hills ſurrounding the plain of Geel-beck, our traveller ſaw a ſmall flock of Zebras, and of quachas (wild horſes). The latter are eaſily made docile; and Mr. B. ſuggeſts that the former might alſo be rendered tractable under any other management than that of the indolent, ſtupid, and barbarous Dutch peaſant.

On many parts of the great deſart, oſtriches were ſeen. This animal, Mr. B. obſerves, is polygamous; and from ignorance of this circumſtance, an error has ſlipt into the *ſyſtema naturæ*, in which it is ſaid, that one female lays fifty eggs; but the fact is, that the different females belonging to one male depoſit their eggs in the ſame neſt.

We now arrive at the 3d chapter, intituled, 'Sketches on a Journey into the country of the Kaffers.'—On the evening of the 30th day of his travels, Mr. Barrow reached Graaff Reynet, the reſidence of the landroſt; whoſe power and importance

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portance will not excite much envy, when the following deſcription of the village, in which he holds his ſtate, is read.

"The village is chiefly inhabited by mechanics, and ſuch as hold ſome petty employment under the landroſt. Its appearance is more miſerable than that of the pooreſt village in England. The neceſſaries of life are with difficulty procured in it; for, though there be plenty of land, few are found induſtrious enough to cultivate it. No milk, no butter, no cheeſe, no vegetables of any kind, are to be had upon any terms. There is no butcher, no chandler, no grocer, no baker. Every one muſt provide for himſelf as well as he can. They have neither wine nor beer; and the chief beverage of the inhabitants is the water of the Sunday-river, which, in the ſummer ſeaſon, is ſtrongly impregnated with ſalt."

When the landroſt, who accompanied Mr. Barrow, came to the Droſdy (or reſidence), a long liſt of grievances were preſented, relative to the incurſions of the tribe of people called Kaffers. Previouſly to the arrival of the landroſt, the farmers, actuated chiefly by the hope of plunder, had prepared to carry war into the country of the Kaffers; but, very humanely and politically, theſe preparations were ſtopped, and "it was reſolved to inquire into the affairs of the Kaffers upon the ſpot where they had poſted themſelves in the greateſt numbers; and, ſhould it be found neceſſary, to proceed from thence to the reſidence of their king; at the ſame time to paſs through and examine as many parts of the country, under the juriſdiction of Graaff Reynet, as could be done without too great an expenditure of time; and particularly to viſit the bay that was ſaid to be formed where the Zwart-kops river falls into the ſea."

This journey commenced on the 11th of Auguſt; and, on the 17th, the party encamped on the verdant bank of a ſalt-water lake, to which the inhabitants reſort in order to procure ſalt. It is ſituated on a plain of conſiderable extent, elevated above the level of the ſea; and the greateſt part of the bottom of the lake is covered with one continued body of ſalt, like a ſheet of ice, the cryſtals of which were ſo united as to form a ſolid maſs, hard as rock.

On the evening of the 18th, Mr. B. arrived at Zwart-kops, or Algoa-bay, ſituated in latitude 33° 56′ ſouth, longitude 26° .53 eaſt of Greenwich, and diſtant from the Cape in a direct line 500 miles. He is of opinion that, from the vicinity of this place to the ſalt-pans, from the eaſe of procuring bullocks in good condition, and from the abundance of excellent fiſh on the coaſt, great benefits would accrue to the Eaſt-India company, if an eſtabliſhment were formed for the preparation of ſalted beef and fiſh.

In the valley through which the Zwart-kops-river flows, the author found a ſpecies of antelope, or goat, called the Riet-Bok, or red goat, hitherto undeſcribed by naturaliſts.

After our traveller had finiſhed his obſervations on Zwart-kops-bay and the adjacent country, he and his party proceeded along the ſea-coaſt into the country of the Kaffers. Having croſſed the rivers Bosjeſmans and Haſſagai-boſch, they fell in with the firſt party of Kaffers, on the banks of the Kareeka; and their meeting was welcomed by the Kaf-

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fer women, who laughed and danced about them. No contraſt can be ſtronger than that which ſubſiſts between the indolent, phlegmatic Hottentot, and the active animated Kaffer.

On the 2d of September, the travellers left the firſt party of the Kaffers, in order to proceed towards the reſidence of the king Gaika. On the occaſion of paſſing a dangerous and difficult defile, Mr. Barrow relates an inſtance of the moſt atrocious inhumanity, towards the exhauſted oxen of one of the teams: But this, unfortunately, is no ſolitary record of brutality. Even in the neighbourhood of the Cape, the feelings of humanity would be continually irritated by acts of cruelty. We hope, however, that the repreſentations of Mr. Barrow will tend to direct the attention of the Engliſh rulers, to the ſufferings of innocent and uſeful animals, in theſe uncivilized regions.

After having viſited the mouth of the great fiſh river, Mr. B. and his companions arrived at the reſidence of the king of the Kaffers, who readily concluded a treaty with the repreſentatives of the Engliſh government. Mr. B. gives the article of the treaty, and then adds an account of the Kaffers; which is ample, intereſting, and demonſtrative of the happineſs of their ſtate.—Our narrow limits prevent us from giving any extracts from this part of the work; and we do not chooſe to mar the deſcription by abridgement. One fact, however, which is ſoon related, we ſhall notice; viz. that the Kaffers expoſe their dead to wild beaſts. The feelings of the relations of the deceaſed are not ſhocked by this cuſtom; and the body is almoſt immediately dragged into dens by wolves, on which account, the life of the wolf is held ſacred by a Kaffer.

All buſineſs with the Kaffer king having been tranſacted, the party proceeded to examine the mouth of the river Keiſkamma: which is here nearly as wide as the Thames at Woolwich, and apparently of great depth: but the entrance is guarded by a bar of land, on which the ſurf breaks with great violence. From the Keiſkamma, the travellers returned by a new route to Graaff Reynet, which place they reached on the 30th of September.

Mr. Barrow remained during three weeks at Graaff Reynet, and then undertook another expedition to the northward, acroſs the Sneeuwberg, which is the ſubject of the IVth chapter. His object was to obſerve the nature and manners of the race of men called Boſjeſmans, or men of the buſhes, who neither cultivate the land nor breed cattle, but live by depredation; and to form ſmall treaties of accommodation with them. Three days journey carried the party into the plains which are within the Sneeuwberg; and one of the retreats of the Boſjeſmans (which retreats are in chaſms formed by the torrents ruſhing down the ſides of the high ſtratified mountains,) was ſoon diſcovered:

"The fires (ſays Mr. B.) were ſcarcely extinguiſhed, and the graſs on which they had ſlept was not yet withered. On the ſmooth ſides of the cavern were drawings of ſeveral animals that had been made from time to time by theſe ſavages. Many of them were caricatures; but others were too well executed not to arreſt attention. The different

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antelopes that were there delineated had each their character so well discriminated, that the originals, from whence the representations had been taken, could, without any difficulty, be ascertained. Among the numerous animals that were drawn, was the figure of a zebra remarkably well done; all the marks and characters of this animal were accurately represented, and the proportions were seemingly correct. The force and spirit of drawings, given to them by bold touches judiciously applied, and by the effect of light and shadow, could not be expected from savages; but for accuracy of outline and correctness of the different parts, worse drawings than that of the zebra have passed through the engraver's hands. The materials with which they had been executed were charcoal, pipe-clay, and the different ochres. The animals represented were zebras, qua-chas, gemboks, springboks, reeboks, eland, baboons, and ostriches, all of which, except the gemsbok, are found upon the very spot."

This skill of the Bosjesmans, in drawing is a curious fact.—As these poor people know, from fatal experience, that the inroads of Europeans into their country are attended with plunder and murder, it is difficult to approach their hordes. The commandant of Mr. Barrow's party, however, having issued strict orders to preserve regularity and silence a kraal of the Bosjesmans was surprised at day break; and, as positive injunctions had been given to the colonists to forego their ordinary practice, and not to fire except in a case of absolute necessity, only one Bosjesman was killed in the surprise. After a short time, a few of the horde descended from the hills, and conversed with the colonists. The nature of the conversation was conciliatory, and designed to impress the minds of the Bosjesmans with the idea, that the custom of wantonly murdering and enslaving them was at an end.

These Bosjesmans, as Mr. B. has described them, are certainly an extraordinary race of men. The males do not exceed in stature the height of four feet nine inches; and the tallest of the females was only four feet four inches in height. They have flat noses, high cheek bones, prominent chins, and hollow visages: their bellies are uncommonly protuberant, and their backs are hollow: yet their activity is incredibly great. Like other savages, they are extremely voracious: with them, it is either a feast or a famine: when successful in bringing home cattle from a plundering party, they slay them in such numbers, that the kraal soon becomes a mass of putrefaction; and flights of vultures are seen hovering over it:

The travellers proceeded some way along the bank of the Sea-Cow river, and then came to its junction with a vast stream, called by colonel Gordon the Orange-river; which, in size and bulk of water, more than equals all the other rivers of the colony taken collectively; its general breadth at 500 miles distance from its mouth being 300 yards, when free from inundations; for, like the Nile, the Orange-river has its periodical overflowings.

An object of considerable importance which Mr. Barrow was to ascertain the existence of the unicorn. Many caverns were fruitlessly explored, with the hopes of finding the delineation of this animal among the drawings of the Bosjesmans: when,

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at length, in a high and concealed kloof, was discovered part of a figure intended as the representation of a beast with a single horn projecting from the forehead. Of this figure, as it was found on the sides of the cavern, Mr. B. has given a fac simile; and this delineation of an animal with a single horn affords some slight arguments for the existence of a living original. If the fac simile be faithful, it also bears strong evidence of the graphical skill of the Bosjesmans. On the probability of the existence of an Unicorn, Mr. B. enters into a discussion of four or five pages.

On the 24th day after their departure, the travellers returned to Graaff Reynet; and this period was marked by the circumstance of excessive heat: the thermometer, when exposed to the wind in the shade, standing at 108°.

Chapter V. Contains Sketches on a journey from Graaff Reynet along the sea coast to the Cape.—When the expedition arrived at Graaff Reynet, it was found that the passage of the great desert was impracticable, on account of the scarcity of water and herbage. At length, however, after a heavy and continued rain, the journey was attempted and effected, though under circumstances of great distress and danger. The rain had not extended far into the country; and, for four days, the travellers endured the mortification and hardship of finding springs and rivers completely dried up: but on the sixth day, fresh water was happily obtained in a stream called Keurfonteyn, or choice spring.

In the route from Graaff Reynet to the Cape, it is necessary to cross a chain of mountains; and the point of the passage is at a mountain emphatically called Duyvil's hop, or the Devil's head; for here the road is dreadfully steep and stoney, formed by steps over some of which it was necessary to lift the waggons by main strength.

Having crossed the Crocodile-river, the Gauritz-river, (the sudden and copious rise of which is so extraordinary, as to have once destroyed a house nearly a hundred feet above the level of its channel,) and various other streams, the travellers reached Cape Town on the 18th of January, after a tour of seven months duration; in the course of which, says Mr. B. "many personal inconveniences and difficulties had occurred, to be borne and surmounted only by a determination to gratify curiosity at the expense of comfort."

Chapter VI. and last contains Sketches on a Journey into the Country of the Namaquas.—This chapter, like its predecessors, contains much curious and interesting matter concerning the face of the country which was explored, its productions, &c. On the occasion of the author's Hottentot following, for a considerable distance, the traces of the waggon, he notes the sagacity of this race of people in investigation:

"At this sort of business a Hottentot is uncommonly clever. There is not an animal among the numbers that range the wilds of Africa, if he be at all acquainted with it, the print of whose feet he cannot distinguish. And though the marks by which his judgement is directed be very nice, they are constant in animals in a state of nature, whereas domesticated animals are liable to many accidental variations. He will distinguish the wolf for instance, from the domestic dog, by the largeness

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neſs of the ball of the foot, and the comparative ſmallneſs of the toes. The print of any of his companions' feet he would ſingle out among a thouſand. The peaſantry are alſo tolerably expert in tracing game by the marks of their feet; it is, in fact, a part of their education. An African boor gains a ſort of reputation by being clever *op het ſpoor*. This is the method by which, on moonlight nights, they hunt down the poor Bosjesmans."

"The Hartebeeſt river, contrary to expectation, being perfectly dry, the experiment of digging was made in the bed of the river, and at five feet under the pebbly and cryſtallized ſand, the fragments apparently of decompoſed granite, was a ſtream of clear freſh water; and from various experiments afterwards made in the ſandy beds of the rivers of the Namaaqua country, I am inclined to think, that ſubterranean ſtreams of water paſs under moſt of them in this part of Africa."

On the ſecond of June, after an abſence of nearly eight weeks, Mr. Barrow returned to Cape Town; his journey having been performed in the moſt unfavourable ſeaſon of of the year, but fortunately without thoſe inconveniences which were naturally to be expected and dreaded.

That the facts related in the preſent volume are not faithfully ſtated, there is very ſlender reaſon for ſuppoſing: while in favour of the author's good faith and accuracy, many arguments may be urged, drawn from previouſly exiſting accounts, from probability and analogy, and from internal evidences. With one or two exceptions, Mr. Barrow manifeſts little diſpoſition to credulity, or to haſtineſs of judgement. His ſtyle is, on the whole, perſpicuous and elegant; neither careleſs nor elaborate; and if in parts it may be cenſured, it is only when the author wiſhes to excite ſomething more than ſedate and temperate approbation; when he ambitiouſly aims at excellencies either beyond his reach, or incompatible with the nature of his performance. Amid much luſtre, to be offended with a few ſpots would diſplay malignity of criticiſm; and thoſe animadverſions are to be ſet aſide, that would divert our regards from the general excellencies of a work which, while it entertains its readers, will make them wiſer, without cauſing them to be more depraved; and which is calculated to increaſe the knowledge of human nature, to enlighten the views of policy, and to excite intereſt for the concerns of ſuffering humanity.

Voyages from Montreal, on the River St. Laurence, through the Continent of North America to the Frozen and Pacific Oceans; in the Years 1789 *and* 1793. *With a preliminary Account of the Riſe, Progreſs, and preſent State of the Fur-Trade of that Country. Illuſtrated with Maps. By Alexander Mackenzie, Eſq.* 4to. 1801.

FEW ages have been more fruitful than the preſent in extraordinary atchievements; and among thoſe which will be regarded with intereſt by poſterity, will be numbered the enterpriſes of the hardy and adventurous travellers who, undaunted by the known danger of their attempts, have traverſed re-

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gions which had been deemed impenetrable to the moſt ardent efforts of the civilized world. The publication, to which our attention is now called, affords another inſtance of this bold and perſevering ſpirit. Mr. Mackenzie has twice, in different directions, croſſed the great continent of North America, from ſhore to ſhore: the firſt time, in 1789, to the Frozen ſea; the ſecond, in 1793, to the Weſtern coaſt; and theſe two voyages are related in the volume before us.

In his preface, the author thus ſpeaks of himſelf and his work:

"I was led, at an early period of life, by commercial views, to the country north-weſt of Lake Superior, in North America; and being endowed by Nature with an inquiſitive mind and enterpriſing ſpirit; poſſeſſing alſo a conſtitution and frame of body equal to the moſt arduous undertakings; and being familiar with toilſome exertions in the proſecution of mercantile purſuits: I not only contemplated the practicability of penetrating acroſs the continent of America, but was confident in the qualifications, as I was animated by the deſire, to undertake the perilous enterpriſe."—

"The firſt voyage has ſettled the dubious point of a practicable north-weſt paſſage; and I truſt, that it has ſet that long-agitated queſtion at reſt, and extinguiſhed the diſputes reſpecting it for ever. An enlarged diſcuſſion of that ſubject will be found to occupy the concluding pages of this volume.

"In this voyage, I was not only without the neceſſary books and inſtruments, but alſo felt myſelf deficient in the ſciences of aſtronomy and navigation: I did not heſitate, therefore, to undertake a winter's voyage to England, in order to procure the one and acquire the other. Theſe objects being accompliſhed, I returned, to determine the practicability of a commercial communication through the continent of North America, between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans."

Theſe preparatory ſteps were favourable indications of a ſpirit of perſeverence adequate to ſuch an attempt, and the event has been fully anſwerable to the prognoſtics.—To account for the laps of time between the execution of his deſign and the appearance of his narrative, the author ſtates that this circumſtance is owing to the active and buſy mode of life in which he has been engaged ſince the completion of the voyages.

In order to enable the reader to comprehend the object and nature of theſe undertakings, the author has prefixed a general Hiſtory of the Fur-Trade, from Canada to the north-weſt; of which we ſhall give a ſhort ſketch.

When European ſettlements were firſt formed in Canada, the country was ſo populous, that, in the vicinity of the eſtabliſhments, the animals whoſe ſkin was moſt valued ſoon became ſcarce. To procure a ſupply, the Indians were encouraged to penetrate into other parts of the country, and were generally accompanied by ſome of the European ſettlers, who found means to induce the remote tribes to bring ſkins to their ſettlements.

"It is not neceſſary for me, (ſays Mr. M.) to examine the cauſe, but experience proves that it requires much leſs time for a civilized people to deviate into the manners and cuſtoms of ſavage life, than for ſavages to riſe into a ſtate of civiliza-

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tion. Such was the event with those who thus accompanied the natives on their hunting and trading excursions; for they became so attached to the Indian mode of life, that they loſt all reliſh for their former habits and native homes. Hence they derived the title of *couriers des bois*, became a kind of pediars, and were extremely uſeful to the merchants engaged in the fur-trade; who gave them the neceſſary credit to proceed on their commercial undertakings. Three or four of theſe people would join their ſtock, put their property into a birch bark canoe, which they worked themſelves, and either accompanied the natives in their excurſions, or went at once to the country where they knew they were to hunt. At length, theſe voyages extended to twelve or fifteen months, when they returned with rich cargoes of furs, and followed by great numbers of the natives. During the ſhort time requiſite to ſettle their accounts with the merchants, and procure freſh credit, they generally contrived to ſquander away all their gains, when they returned to renew their favourite mode of life; their views being anſwered, and their labour ſufficiently rewarded, by indulging themſelves in extravagance and diſſipation during the ſhort ſpace of one month in twelve or fifteen.

"This indifference about amaſſing property, and the pleaſure of living free from all reſtraint, ſoon brought on a licentiouſneſs of manners which could not long eſcape the vigilant obſervation of the miſſionaries, who had much reaſon to complain of their being a diſgrace to the Chriſtian religion; by not only ſwerving from its duties themſelves, but by thus bringing it into diſrepute with thoſe of the natives who had become converts to it; and, conſequently, obſtructing the great object to which thoſe pious men had devoted their lives. They, therefore, exerted their influence to procure the ſuppreſſion of theſe people, and accordingly, no one was allowed to go up the country to traffic with the Indians, without a licence from the government."

The grant of theſe licences was ſoon conſidered as a favour, and they were made transferable, and of courſe ſaleable. Thoſe who bought were allowed to appoint their own agents, and the agents thus employed were generally the *couriers de bois*, whoſe conduct had given ſuch cauſe of complaint; ſo that the remedy proved in fact worſe than the diſeaſe. At length, military poſts were eſtabliſhed at convenient places, and ſeveral reſpectable men proſecuted the trade on their own accounts in perſon; which mode was attended with the twofold benefit of ſecuring the reſpect of the natives, and the obedience of the people employed in the laborious parts of the buſineſs.

Under the French government, the fur-trade from Canada was extended as far weſt as the Saſkatchiwine-river, in 53° N. latitude, and 102° weſt longitude from Greenwich. Mr. Mackenzie mentions that two of the traders at that time attempted to penetrate to the Pacific Ocean, but he could never learn the extent of their journey.—After the conqueſt of Canada by the Engliſh, the trade for furs in that country was for ſome time ſuſpended; the new poſſeſſors having neither knowledge of the Indian language, nor confidence in the natives, who had been accuſtomed to

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entertain hoſtile diſpoſitions towards the Engliſh. By degrees, however, the trade revived, and, being encouraged by a few ſucceſsful adventures, "was purſued with ſuch avidity and irregularity, that in a few years it became the reverſe of what it ought to have been. An animated competition prevailed, and the contending parties carried the trade beyond the French limits, though with no benefit to themſelves or neighbours, the Hudſon's Bay company; who in the year 1774, and not till then, thought proper to move from home to the eaſt-bank of Sturgeon-lake, in latitude 53° 56′ north, and the longitude 102° 15′ weſt; and became more jealous of their fellow ſubjects, and, perhaps, with more cauſe, than they had been of thoſe of France. From this period to the preſent time, they have been following the Canadians to their different eſtabliſhments; while on the contrary, there is not a ſolitary inſtance that the Canadians have followed them.

This competition gave a fatal blow to the trade from Canada; but, in 1775, Mr. Joſeph Frobiſher, one of the gentlemen engaged in this commerce, being more enterpriſing than his predeceſſors, went as far as to 55° 25′ N. and to 103°¼ weſt longitude, where he met the Indians from that quarter on their way to Fort Churchill, and with ſome difficulty prevailed on them to trade with him. He went again in the following year, and was equally ſucceſsful; and his brother afterward penetrated nearly five degrees more to the weſt.

In the winter of 1783-4, the merchants of Canada, who were engaged in this trade, formed a junction of intereſts under the name of the North-Weſt company: but ſome who were diſſatisfied with the ſhares allotted to them, and others who conſidered themſelves as neglected, entered into a co-partnerſhip ſeparate from that company; and in this aſſociation Mr. M. engaged as a partner, and as one of the active managers. After a ſevere ſtruggle with their competitors, however, they adopted the wiſe reſolution of agreeing to an union of intereſts: which new engagement was concluded in July, 1787.—The author has entered into a detail of the management of the North-Weſt company; and our readers may form ſome judgement of the extent of the trade, from the following account of the furs and peltries which were the produce of the year 1798:

" 106,000 Beaver ſkins,
2100 Bear ſkins,
1500 Fox ſkins,
4000 Kit Fox ſkins,
4600 Otter ſkins,
17,000 Muſquaſh ſkins,
32,000 Marten ſkins,
1800 Mink ſkins,
6000 Lynx ſkins,
600 Wolverine ſkins,
1650 Fiſher ſkins,
100 Raccon ſkins,
3800 Wolf ſkins,
700 Elk ſkins,
750 Deer ſkins,
1200 Deer ſkins, dreſſed,
500 Buffalo robes, and a quantity of caſtor."

"The number of men employed in the concern is 50 clerks; 71 interpreters and clerks; 1120 canoe men; and 35 guides."

Mr. M. has given, in this part of his work, an itinerary, or deſcription of the route from Montreal to Fort Chepewyan on the ſouth ſide of the Lake

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Lake of the Hills; an eſtabliſhment which was formed in 1788, in latitude 58° 38′ N. and in longitude 1 10° 26′ Weſt. The labour performed by ſome of the carriers appears extraordinary:

"When they arrive at the Grande Portage, which is near nine miles over, each of them has to carry eight packages of ſuch goods and proviſions as are neceſſary for the interior country. This is a labour which cattle cannot conveniently perform in ſummer; as both horſes and oxen were tried by the company without ſucceſs. They are only uſeful for light bulky articles; or for tranſporting upon ſledges, during the winter, whatever goods may remain there, eſpecially proviſion, of which it is uſual to have a year's ſtock on hand.

"Having finiſhed this toilſome part of their duty, if more goods are neceſſary to be tranſported, they are allowed a Spaniſh dollar for each package: and ſo inured are they to this kind of labour, that I have known ſome of them ſet off with two packages of ninety pounds each, and return with two other of the ſame weight, in the courſe of ſix hours, being a diſtance of eighteen miles over hills and mountains."

Some of the Indian tribes are deſcribed in this introductory hiſtory of the fur-trade. The Knifteneaux Indians are ſpread over a great portion of the continent of North America; and Mr. M. remarks that their women are the moſt comely of any that he has ſeen among the native Americans. Their figure is generally well proportioned, and the regularity of their features would be acknowledged by the more civilized people of Europe."—"Theſe people are naturally mild and affable as well as juſt in their dealings; not only among themſelves but with ſtrangers. They are alſo generous and hoſpitable.—To their children they are indulgent to a fault."—After a portrait with ſo many excellent features, it is with pain that we contemplate others which are very bad, and that we alſo learn the miſerable ſtate of the females of this nation. "They are ſubject to every kind of domeſtic drudgery; they dreſs the leather, make the clothes and ſhoes, weave the nets, collect wood, erect the tents, fetch water, and perform every culinary ſervice; ſo that when the duties of maternal care are added, it will appear that the life of theſe women is an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of toil and pain. This, indeed, is the ſenſe they entertain of their own ſituation; and, under the influence of that ſentiment, they are ſometimes known to deſtroy their female children, to ſave them from the miſeries which they themſelves have ſuffered. They alſo have a ready way, by the uſe of certain ſimples, of procuring abortions, which they ſometimes practice, from their hatred of the father, or to ſave themſelves the trouble which children occaſion."

After this introduction, which is replete with entertainment and information, Mr. M. enters on the relation of his voyage to the north.—On Wedneſday, June 3, 1789, at nine in the morning, he departed from Chepewyan, on the ſouth ſide of the Lake of the Hills, in a canoe made of birch bark.

The route purſued was, firſt, to the weſtern part of the Lake of the Hills; and thence to the north, by a river which diſcharges itſelf into

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a lake, called the Great Slave-lake. After having made a circuit round the greater portion of the northern shore of the Slave-Lake, on the 29th of June, at its western part, they entered a river to which Mr. Mackenzie has given his own name, being then in a tract wholly new to Europeans; and they followed the course of this stream, of which the general direction was to the N. W. till it brought them to the Frozen Sea. This short outline gives a very inadequate idea of the track: but, indeed, it cannot be well comprehended without consulting the map with which the narrative is accompanied.—An Indian of a tribe called the Redknife Indians (so named from their copper knives) undertook to be their guide.

Their progress was made by day; for at night they always landed and set up their tents; embarking again in the morning. The Indians of their party provided food by hunting, shooting, or fishing; which, however, was not their sole reliance, since they had taken a store of provisions in the canoe. They frequently saw places at which the Indians had resided, and sometimes they met with Indians: but the number of them bore a very small proportion to the extent of country through which the voyagers passed. Towards the sea they descended with the stream. The natives, from whom they endeavoured to obtain information, gave exaggerated accounts of rapids and falls in their way; but they were all passed without much danger or difficulty.

The life of the unsettled North Americans must necessarily be a state of habitual and unceasing apprehension; and accordingly Mr. M. and his party had passed nearly a week in Mackenzie's river, when they first met some of the natives.

These people told the travellers that there were very few animals in the country beyond them, and that, if they proceeded, they must perish with hunger; yet one of the Indians was induced to accompany them by the offer of a small kettle, an axe, a knife, and some other articles. "As we were ready to embark, (says the author,) our new recruit was desired to prepare for his departure which he would have declined; but, as none of his friends would take his place, we may be said, after the delay of an hour, to have compelled him to embark. Previous to his departure, he cut off a lock of his hair, and, having divided it into three parts, he fastened one of them to the hair on the upper part of his wife's head, blowing on it three times with the utmost violence, and uttering certain words. The other two he fastened, with the same formalities, on the heads of his two children."

The Indians of this village are described as meagre, ugly, and ill made, particularly about the legs, which were covered with scabs, "occasioned probably by their habitually roasting them before the fire;" and many of them were in a bad state of health. "They were of moderate stature, and, as far as could be discovered through the coat of dirt and grease that covers them, of a fairer complexion than the generality of Indians who are the natives of warmer climates."—"Their lodges are of a very simple structure: a few poles, supported by a fork, and forming a semicircle at the bottom, with some branches or a piece of bark as a covering, constitutes

conſtitutes the whole of their native architecture. They build two of theſe huts facing each other, and make the fire between them. The furniture harmonizes with the buildings; they have a few diſhes of wood, bark, or horn; the veſſels in which they cook their victuals are in the ſhape of a gourd, narrow at the top and wide at the bottom, and of watape,* fabricated in ſuch a manner as to hold water, which is made to boil by putting a ſucceſſion of red-hot ſtones into it. Theſe veſſels contain from two to ſix gallons."

The following ſentence will ſhew the expedition with which the voyagers were carried towards the ſea; "Monday, July 6th, at three o'clock, in a raw and cloudy morning, we embarked, and ſteered weſt-ſouth-weſt 4 miles, weſt 4 miles, weſt-north-weſt 5 miles, weſt 8 miles, weſt by ſouth 16 miles, weſt 27 miles, ſouth-weſt 9 miles, then weſt 6 miles, and encamped at half paſt ſeven." The author has kept a regular and minute reckoning of the route, and in the hiſtory of each day has given an account of the progreſs: but it would perhaps have been more pleaſant to the reader, and the route would have been more readily comprehended, if the courſes and diſtances had been ſeparated from the narative, and formed into a table.

Indians were ſeen farther to the north, of more creditable appearance than thoſe whom we have juſt deſcribed; "healthy, full of fleſh, and clean in their perſons." The voyagers now found their guide ſo troubleſome in requiring his diſcharge, that they were glad to exchange him for another; who alſo ſoon took an opportunity of eſcaping; but they had the good fortune ſhortly afterward of procuring a third, more willing than either of the former. To the north of 67°½ of north latitude, however, the river beginning to widen, and to run through different channels formed by large iſlands, they were beyond his knowledge, and only determined on keeping the middle channel.

July 12th. The author took an obſervation in 69° 01′ N. and no land was ſeen before them except iſlands. They made towards the weſtern point of a high iſland to the north, at which they arrived at five o'clock. Ice appeared to interrupt their farther progreſs; no land was ſeen to the north beyond the iſland on which they then were; and this was the northern boundary of their voyage. "As ſoon as the tents were pitched," ſays Mr. M. "I proceeded with the Engliſh chief to the higheſt part of the iſland.—As far as the eye could reach to the ſouth-weſtward, we could dimly perceive a chain of mountains, ſtretching farther to the north than the edge of the ice, at the diſtance of upwards of twenty leagues. To the eaſtward we ſaw many iſlands; and in our progreſs we met with a conſiderable number of white partridges, now become brown. There were alſo flocks of very beautiful plovers, and I found the neſt of one of them with four eggs. White owls, likewiſe, were among the inhabitants of the place; but the dead, as well as the

* "Watape is the name given to the divided roots of the ſpruce fir, which the natives weave into a degree of compactneſs that renders it capable of containing a fluid. The different parts of the bark canoes are alſo ſewed together with this kind of filament."

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living, demanded our attention, for we came to the grave of one of the natives, by which lay a bow, a paddle, and a spear."

The whole party were unwilling that, having gone so far, they should be obliged to return without ascertaining whether or not they had reached the sea; and, in hopes that the ice would break up and disperse, they prolonged their stay on the island. In this station, the latitude was observed 69° 14' N. The longitude, by reckoning, was 134° W. from Greenwich. [In the narrative it is said, 135° W. which must be an error of the press; the longitude in the chart being 134° W.] The variations of the compass was 36 degrees easterly.—"Fish were caught, among which were some about the size of a herring, which none of us had ever seen before, except the English chief, who recognised it as being of a kind that abounds in Hudson's Bay."—"Tuesday 14th. Having sat up till three in the morning, I slept longer than usual; but, about eight, one of my men saw a great many animals in the water, which he at first supposed to be pieces of ice. About nine, however, I was awakened to resolve the doubts which had taken place respecting this extraordinary appearance. I immediately perceived that they were whales; and, having ordered the canoe to be prepared, we embarked in pursuit of them. It was, indeed, a very wild and unreflecting enterprise, and it was a very fortunate circumstance that we failed in our attempt to overtake them, as a stroke from the tail of one of these enormous fish would have dashed the canoe to pieces." The sight of the whales sufficiently demonstrated the neighbourhood of the sea; but we do not find any mention of experiments being made to determine whether the water, on which they navigated, was in any degree salt or brackish. The spot whence the whales were seen was named, by the author, Whale-island, and is nearly in the same latitude (but 20 degrees more to the west) as the part of the north coast whence Mr. Hearne, in 1771, saw the sea.—The return to the south by the same river (Mackenzie's River) was a business of much more labour and fatigue than the voyage to the sea, since they had to mount against a strong stream, which required constant exertion of paddling, or of tracking with a line on shore. In one part of the river, where the breadth from shore to shore did not exceed 300 yards, the depth of water was 50 fathoms.

Most of the Indians seen by Mr. M. to the northward were at variance with the Esquimaux, whom they represented as being cruel and treacherous: but from these Esquimaux the author learned that, 'eight or ten winters ago, they had been large canoes to the westward, full of white men, from whom they had obtained iron in exchange for leather.' From other information, imperfectly understood, he had reason for conjecturing that the body of water or sea, into which Mackenzie's river discharges itself at Whale-island, communicates with Norton-sound.

It will easily be credited that hard travelling in a cold climate is an excellent stimulant to the appetite; and the following instance is here related: "We had consumed two rein-deer, four swans, forty-five geese, and a considerable quantity of fish, in six days, but it is to be considered

conſidered we were ten men and four women. I have always obſerved that the north men poſſeſſed very hearty appetites, but they were much exceeded by thoſe with me, ſince we entered this river. I ſhould really have thought it abſolute gluttony in my people, if my own appetite had not increaſed in a ſimilar proportion."

In the return, a ſerious diſpute took place between the author and the Indians of his party; and, in order to prevent it from growing to a quarrel, he ſays, "I ſent for the Engliſh chief to ſup with me; and a dram or two diſpelled all his heart-burning and diſcontent. He informed me that it was a cuſtom with the Chepewyan chiefs to go to war after they had ſhed tears, to wipe away the diſgrace attached to ſuch a feminine weakneſs."

On Saturday, September 27th, at three in the afternoon, the voyagers arrived in ſafety at Chepewyan-fort, whence they had commenced their progreſs; and "here concluded this voyage, which had occupied the conſiderable ſpace of one hundred and two days."

The expedition of Mr. Mackenzie to the weſtern coaſt of North America, which is now the object of our attention, was an undertaking more arduous and enterprizing than even his voyage to the north. He begins his relation at Fort Chepewyan, from which place he departed in October 1792; and, proceeding along the Unjigah or Peace-river, he arrived on the 1ſt of November, at a place called the Forks, where the river branched in two directions, one running towards the ſouth, the other to the weſt. Keeping in the weſtern branch, the author landed a few miles beyond the Forks, at a ſpot to which people had been before ſent to make preparations for erecting a houſe; and here he fixed his reſidence for the winter. Fork-fort which was the name given to the place, is in latitude 56° 09′ N, and longitude 117° 35′ W. from Greenwich.

The conſtruction of a fort, ſtore-houſes, &c. and the ſettlement of various matters with the Indians, furniſhed Mr. M. with employment. Accidents likewiſe obliged him to make trial of his ſkill in phyſic and ſurgery; and he had the ſatisfaction of being fortunate in his practice. The following is related among other caſes: "One of the young Indians had loſt the uſe of his right hand by the burſting of a gun, and his thumb had been maimed in ſuch a manner as to hang only by a ſmall ſtrip of fleſh. Indeed, when he was brought to me, his wound was in ſuch an offenſive ſtate, and emitted ſuch a putrid ſmell, that it required all the reſolution I poſſeſſed to examine it. His friends had done every thing in their power to relieve him; but as it conſiſted only in ſinging about him, and blowing upon his hand, the wound, as may well be imagined, had got into the deplorable ſtate in which I found it." This caſe, at the riſk of his ſurgical reputation, Mr. M. undertook; and the patient received benefit, and was not ungrateful.

On the 9th of May, 1793, Mr. M. departed from the fort of the Forks, in order to proſecute his weſtern diſcovery. The travelling party conſiſted of ten men (including himſelf); of which number, two had accompanied him in the former expedition, and two were Indians, intended to ſerve as hunters

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ers and interpreters. The whole were embarked in one canoe, which was twenty-five feet long within, and four feet nine inches broad: at the same time it was so light, that two men could carry it on a good road three or four miles without resting. In this vessel, besides the company, were shipped provisions, ammunition, goods for presents, &c. to the weight of 3000lbs. They began the voyage against a strong current, the Unjigah-river discharging itself into the Slave-lake to the north-eastward, and the direction pursued by the party being towards the S. W. The country through which they had first passed, the author writes, displayed a succession of the most beautiful scenery which he had ever beheld: but the rapidity of the stream rendered the navigation dangerous, and extremely laborious. In one part of the river they were obliged to unload four times in the space of two miles, and to carry every thing but the canoe.

Against such obstacles, however, the perseverance of Mr. Mackenzie at length prevailed. In order to lighten the canoe, most of the party walked. "Mr. Mackay informed me (says the writer) that, in passing over the mountains, he observed several chasms in the earth that emitted heat and smoke, which diffused a strong sulphurous stench. I should have visited this phenomenon, if I had been sufficiently qualified as a naturalist to have offered scientific observations thereon."

On June 12th, they reached the head of the Unjigah-river, at what the author believes to be its most southern source. They procured a guide in the route; and here they found a carrying place that led, at 817 paces distance, to a small lake, whence they arrived at another river, the current of which was soon found to take a southern direction. Mr. M. has supposed this to be the Columbia, or a branch of that river. In descending this stream, the voyagers very narrowly escaped being wrecked: but, were we to extract the passage, or to be more particular in the description of the route, we should too much lengthen our account. From information which Mr. M. acquired from the Indians with whom he met, he learned that, at some distance to the westward of the river, which they were navigating, there was another which led to the sea; "I called those of my people about me," he says, "who had not been present at my consultation with the natives; and after passing a warm eulogium on their fortitude, patience, and perseverance, I stated the difficulties that threatened our continuing to navigate the river, the length of time it would require, and the scanty provision we had for such a voyage: I then proceeded for the foregoing reasons to propose a shorter route, by trying the over-land road to the sea." This proposition was zealously adopted by all.—They were obliged to remount the stream, in order to regain a station more convenient for depositing such things as they could not carry with them, than the place at which they had formed the resolution; and their canoe had sustained so much damage, that it became necessary to build a new one. This however, was a work of only three days. The canoe was placed under a covering of small trees and branches, and with it were put many other things; but the provisions,

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visions and gun-powder were left in more secure hiding-places.

On July 4th, they began their journey by land. The distance to the western river was, in a straight line, above 100 miles: but, by the circuitous route which they were obliged to take, the length of their march was much increased. They procured guides from among the natives, and travelled in frequented paths, but heavy laden, with their arms, provisions, and other baggage. "Each of the Canadians had a burden of about ninety pounds, with a gun and some ammunition."

In this part of the journey, the natives were comparatively numerous.—We insert the following paragraph, which here occurs, because it communicates information which may be of essential service to distressed travellers:—"We proceeded on our journey accompanied by the Indian and his two sons. As I did not want the younger, and should be obliged to feed him, I requested of his father to leave him, for the purpose of fishing for the women. He replied, that they were accustomed to fish for themselves; and that I need not be apprehensive of their encroaching upon my provisions, as they were used to sustain themselves in their journeys on herbs, and the inner tegument of the bark of trees, for the stripping of which he had a thin piece of bone, then hanging by his side. The latter is of a glutinous quality, of a clammy, sweet taste, and is generally considered by the more interior Indians as a delicacy, rather than an article of common food."

When the travellers arrived at the Western river, the first habitations which they saw belonged to Indians of a tribe which do not eat fish. The guide, having gone before, had prepared for the travellers a friendly reception.

The language of these Indians was totally different from any which the author had before heard. After having made presents to their host, who had provided for them two canoes, the travellers embarked, accompanied by seven of the natives. "I had imagined," says Mr. M. "that the Canadians were the most expert canoe-men in the world, but they acknowledged themselves inferior to these people in conducting those vessels."

During the remainder of the passage towards the sea, the voyagers were kept in a state of constant apprehension, and were frequently in situations from which it required the utmost exertions of their vigilence and resolution to extricate themselves. At a place which Mr. M. has distinguished by the appellation of the Friendly Village, the circumstances of their entertainment were not at first of the most encouraging kind.

The travellers remained all night at this village; and soon after they had retired to rest, the chief came to Mr. M. and requested him to accept his bed-companion: but, notwithstanding repeated intreaties on the part of the chief, this offering of hospitality was not accepted.

From the Friendly Village, the travellers were furnished with another canoe, and proceeded with the stream towards the sea. At one house where they stopped, some of the women were employed in beating and preparing the inner rind of the cedar bark, to which they gave the appearance of flax. Others were spinning with a distaff and spindle. One of them was weaving

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a robe of this substance, intermixed with stripes of the sea-otter skin, on a frame of adequate contrivance, which was placed against the side of the house. The men were fishing with drag-nets between two canoes.—After this account of their employments, many readers, we apprehend, will have a more respectful opinion of the state of the arts and manufactures among the natives of North America, than they have been accustomed to entertain.

On July the 20th, Mr. M. and his companions arrived at an arm of the sea; and on the 21st they were near a cape which was seen by captain Vancouver, and by him named Cape Menzies, the arm of the sea being that which he has called the Cascade-Canal. This was the farthest of their progress to the west; and at this station, the latitude was 52° 21′ N, and the longitude, calculated from the mean of two emersions of Jupiter's satellites, 128° 02′ W. which is something more west than cape Menzies is placed in the chart of captain Vancouver.

In the night of the 22d of July they began their voyage of return, the particulars of which afford much amusement; and they once more arrived at fort Chepawyan, on the 24th of August.

We have been less circumstantial in our remarks on the relation of this voyage, than on the expedition to the Northern sea: but it may nevertheless be remarked that the account of the voyage to the west coast is a work of greater entertainment and interest than could have been furnished by that which was directed to the north. Each has its distinct utility: the northern, in corroborating, and we may say in completing, the evidence that there does not exist a navigable passage by sea to the north of America; and the western, in proving the practicability of commercial intercourse through the continent between the eastern and western coasts.

Mr. M. has drawn up some brief observations concerning the geography, the climate, and the fur-trade of North America; which are inserted in the latter part of his volume, and serve as an appendix to the voyages. In his remarks on the geography, he considers both the political divisions, and those which have been formed by nature. The climate, it is stated, is much more severe on the eastern than on the western coast; which the author attributes to the former being exposed to the north-west winds that blow from the Frozen-sea.—The following passage affords matter for reflection: but we will not undertake to determine whether or not it is founded on a sufficient length of experience.

"It has been frequently advanced, that the difference of clearing away the wood has had an astonishing influence in meliorating the climate: but I am not disposed to assent to that opinion in the extent which it proposes to establish, when I consider the very trifling proportion of the country cleared, compared with the whole. The employment of the axe may have had some inconsiderable effect; but I look to other causes. I myself observed in a country, which was in an absolute state of nature, that the climate is improving; and this circumstance was confirmed to me by the native inhabitants of it. Such a change, therefore, must proceed from some predominating operation in the system of the globe which is beyond my conjecture, and, indeed,

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indeed, above my comprehenſion, and may, probably, in the courſe of time, give to America the climate of Europe. It is well known, indeed, that the waters are decreaſing there, and that many lakes are draining and filling up by the earth which is carried into them from the higher lands by the rivers: and this may have ſome partial effect."

The writer concludes his work with conſiderations reſpecting the fur-trade; which, he is of opinion, would be productive of more advantage both to the public and to the merchants, if the Hudſon's Bay and the North-weſt companies were to unite.

It ſeems ſuperfluous to add to the foregoing account, that we regard the expeditions of Mr. Mackenzie as of conſiderable importance to geography and commerce; and that his narrative contains much information and entertainment. It is accompanied with three maps, which are well executed: one, general, of the northern part of America, from 40° to 70° N. latitude; and a ſeparate map for each voyage.

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